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ABSTRACT

This monograph, consisting of two papers, is intended to assist the teaching profession to analyze and study the broad picture of inservice education of teachers. In the first paper, a rationale for the present state of the art is given and also a projection for the future. Differing, but equally effective, approaches to the inservice education of teachers are analyzed. Factors that determine program purposes and characteristics are discussed. Scenarios of three illustrative inservice education programs are presented in detail. In the second paper, a number of basic conditions that need to be considered in planning for more viable inservice alternatives are considered, and suggestions on how some of these issues may be resolved are offered. The point is made that the "whys" and "hows" of inservice education will be understood more clearly if they are examined in relationship to foreseeable changes in the total approach to teacher education, and school conditions in general. (JD)

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PLANNING INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION:
PROMISING ALTERNATIVES

by

Herbert Hite

Kenneth R. Howey

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EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

The literature about continuing development of education personnel is comprised largely of studies and accounts of specific training programs. Only recently has much attention been given to the big picture, that is, to comprehensive treatments of what inservice education means, what its purposes should be, and how it should be governed, financed, delivered, and evaluated. Such treatments are essential preliminary steps to the development by the profession of an urgently needed theoretical rationale for inservice education.

This monograph, consisting of two papers by highly qualified authors, is intended to assist the profession to analyze and study the big picture of inservice education. It is hoped that these two basic treatments will provide a groundwork for the profession to move ahead with its task of developing a comprehensive conceptualization of inservice education within which national, state, institutional, and local district policies can be formulated.

The two papers focus primarily on the inservice education of teachers. While it is recognized that all education professionals need career-long staff development, it seems appropriate to limit the scope of this monograph as noted since current conditions have assigned a priority of immediacy to the inservice education of classroom teachers.

In the first of the two papers, Dr. Herbert Hite provides a rationale for the present state of the art and a projection for the future. He analyzes differing, but equally effective, approaches to the inservice education of teachers, and notes the factors which determine program purposes and characteristics. He then presents detailed scenarios of three illustrative inservice education programs, clustering the determiners in different sets, and concludes that all three programs "may be equally effective--different, but equal."

Dr. Hite was commissioned to write this paper by AACTE's Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education. The Committee, which has devoted part of its study this year to the relationship of a competency-based approach to inservice education, decided that it needed an in-house paper which addressed the gestalt of inservice education. With the assistance of the Committee and consultants, Dr. Hite produced the paper which is included in this monograph. The Committee was unanimous in its judgment that the article which resulted from these efforts was far too valuable to retain as an in-house paper.

In the second paper, Dr. Kenneth Howey reviews a number of basic conditions which need to be considered in planning for more viable inservice alternatives, and suggests how some of these issues might be resolved. He argues that the "whys" and "hows" of inservice education will be understood more clearly if they are examined in relationship to foreseeable changes in the total approach to teacher education, and school conditions in general.

In keeping with its goal of generating publications which speak to current current issues and topics facing the education profession, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education commissioned Dr. Howey to develop a paper treating the topic of alternative approaches to inservice education. The paper which resulted was included in this monograph because we believe it is an appropriate companion piece to Dr. Hite's paper, and that together they make an important contribution to the literature about inservice education.

The development of this publication represents the contributions of many persons: the two authors who carry final responsibility for the ideas expressed; staff members of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education; and committee and staff members of the PBTE Project. AACTE acknowledges with appreciation all of these contributions.

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Part One

Inservice Education:

Perceptions, Purposes, and Practices

An attempt to provide a rationale
for the present state of the art,
and a projection for the future.

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to analyze different, but effective approaches to the inservice education of teachers, and to offer a rationale for the wide range of practices which exist. The paper is intended for persons who are responsible for planning and directing inservice education programs. It came to be written because many educators (the writer included) are concerned and confused by both the literature about inservice education and the practices which are reported in national meetings.

Obviously, inservice education means different things to different people. There is no agreement on the purposes of inservice education. Specific training strategies which have been proven effective in the initial preparation of teachers--such as performance based education strategies--may implement one program and be unacceptable to another. There does seem to be agreement, however, on two things: (a) the professional development of practicing teachers is more important to more education agencies now than ever before, and (b) there is consensus among the clients of inservice education (teachers) that inservice education in the past has been less than satisfactory, to say the least.

There must be some explanation of the different purposes and contrasting practices which characterize inservice education. Perhaps realistic descriptions of different activities in different settings may clarify the state of the art and point to some directions for development.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Until the late 1970s, the inservice education of teachers was not a major concern of most colleges of teacher education. Faculty involved in these programs more often than not participated on an extra-load basis. Teachers who were the students of these programs participated on an extra-load basis, also. Most programs had little continuity and no clear goals. Funds were meager--but this is changing.

State and federal funds are stimulating new inservice efforts. For instance, in 1975 the federal legislation which appropriated funds for Teacher Corps demonstration projects authorized money for the "retraining of experienced teachers and aides." This meant that over 100 colleges, in cooperation with school building faculties, each spent at least two years developing an intensive and well-funded inservice program. Several states also have plans for new approaches to inservice education and have appropriations to implement the plans. Development of the Teacher Center concept points to new professional development programs on a national scale. (A Teacher Center is an informal, non-evaluative environment with access to homemade materials and tools, and is staffed by teachers or other persons whom teachers find credible.) National and regional professional conferences have been held to "rethink inservice education." Several major studies were commissioned in the 1975-76 period. The National Center for Education Statistics sponsored a comprehensive study; and the first phase, production of five publications under the direction of Bruce Joyce, was completed in 1976. Also in 1976, a National Council of States on Inservice Education was organized. These activities are part of the evidence of a change in thinking about inservice education.

REASONS FOR THE INCREASED IMPORTANCE OF INSERVICE EDUCATION

There are many reasons for this surge of energy among the various groups concerned with the professional development of school personnel.

Colleges of Education. From the point of view of the faculty in colleges of education, inservice education now has a high priority because of changes in the population of students of teaching. There are fewer openings for new teachers, and consequently fewer college students are enrolled in teacher preparation programs. Typically, teachers are remaining on the job for longer periods, in marked contrast to the 1950s and 1960s when, on the average, beginning teachers dropped out of teaching after fewer than three years. In addition, more experienced teachers need retraining to meet challenges which were not anticipated when they completed their basic preparation.

Obviously, college of education faculty members themselves need retraining to become effective in field-based education. Those college persons who already have accepted a challenge to work in field settings have an added incentive because of the increased value attached to their activities. If college faculty members are to achieve one of their major objectives--to implement the improvement of teaching in the elementary and secondary schools--then they must work with teachers on the job rather than make their major effort with future teachers.

State Departments of Education. Inservice education is becoming of primary importance to state departments of education because fewer certificates are being awarded, and therefore standards for certification have less impact upon the quality of the corps of teachers. Not only are fewer initial certificates awarded, but in states which require a second level certificate for teachers, there are fewer teachers who have not earned that certificate. For instance, in the state of Washington in 1976, 80 percent of the teachers had earned the career certificate--which requires a fifth year of study after experience. Since most formal teacher education in that state is intended for either the first level or career level of certification, it is apparent that efforts to affect the quality of teaching in the schools must be designed for experienced, career teachers on their terms, because these teachers have no state requirements to meet.

School Districts. For local school districts, inservice education has always had high priority. Traditionally, school administrators have dealt with two kinds of inservice needs: (a) New teachers (and some older teachers) need further preparation in basic teaching skills and knowledge, as a continuation of basic preparation. (b) At some time in their careers, all experienced teachers find it necessary to retrain for new competencies to meet newly identified needs of their students. In fact, career teachers have always considered that continuing professional development is part of their career responsibility. Lately, demands for retraining to meet specific needs, such as for multicultural education and "mainstreaming" of mildly handicapped children in regular classrooms, have been increasing.

The Public. Taxpayers and legislators are responsible for some of the increasing demands on practicing teachers. In the competition for public

funds, schools are receiving less, and for this reason teachers are asked to manage classrooms with more children. Legislators are requiring that teachers be "accountable" for the performance of their pupils, and this demand is translated by teachers into new needs. For example, accountability legislation has led to requests for help in defining objectives and designing assessment tools.

Teachers' Organizations. The politics of schooling also have an effect on inservice education. Teachers' organizations are taking strong positions in favor of teachers' having a major voice in determining their own professional development. The terms and conditions for inservice education are now part of the package which is presented by local teacher groups in their annual negotiations with school boards for salaries and working conditions.

THE STATUS OF INSERVICE EDUCATION

Apparently, inservice education is high on everyone's agenda. There are felt needs, and there are external incentives. It is to be hoped that studies which have been commissioned will define the characteristics of effective inservice education. A reading of these studies, however, leads to an unexpected dilemma: the studies show that there are great differences in how different educators perceive inservice education.

Unlike the preparation of beginning teachers, inservice education has no tradition of what constitutes a basic program. Different perceptions imply different sets of values--what ought to be the way to undertake professional development. Because values do not lend themselves to technical criticism, each definition may be legitimate for its supporters. The way inservice education is perceived seems to determine the activities and content of programs. Thus, the very different perceptions of inservice education lead to equally different programs in operation.

THE PROBLEM OF DEFINITION

The range of perceptions about inservice education is reflected in the variety of definitions of inservice education which exist in the literature. Joyce, Howey, and Yarger provide a comprehensive discussion in *Inservice Teacher Education - Report I: "Issues to Face,"* June 1970. Definitions which illustrate a range of assumptions and values concerning inservice education include:

1. Inservice education is defined as all of the experiences undertaken by a teacher after beginning professional practice. With this definition a smorgasbord of training experiences is appropriate. Any one kind of training is, in theory, a potential inservice program.
2. Inservice education is defined as those experiences which are designed to improve the performance of teachers in their assigned responsibilities. A sharp distinction is made between specific training for job improvement and that selected by individual teachers for their own goals.

3. Inservice education is upgrading the performance of teachers to meet the continuously changing needs and aspirations of students. This is the retraining concept of inservice education.
4. Inservice education is the attempt to help the individual teacher become self-actualizing.
5. Inservice education is the process by which a teacher may meet the requirements for a license to continue in teaching. This is not so much a definition as an observation about what constitutes the general practice in a state or region.

A TRIAL DEFINITION FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS

It is hard for faculties of colleges of teacher education to find these different definitions equally acceptable, depending on the values of a given group. A definition which would be generally accepted by teacher educators might differ from one acceptable to school administrators or to teachers' organizations. Such a definition might attribute a purpose to inservice education. This would limit the field of professional development to planned experiences for teachers, and eliminate some of the incidental events which do have learning value (such as conversations in the coffee room, visits to museums, recreation to restore emotional health). Also, this purpose should be directed toward the teacher's primary role--as director of pupil learning. The definition of inservice education should imply that teachers need to go beyond their local resources in their search for career development.

A definition of inservice education which would be acceptable to teacher educators would include planned education for teachers both at the school and on campuses of higher institutions.

A trial definition of inservice education for teacher educators: *Inservice Education consists of those experiences which are designed to help practicing teachers improve their services, to both clients and colleagues.*

Value-laden words in the definition are "designed" and "improve." The first implies purpose; the second implies higher standards of performance.

THE DEFINITION DEPENDS ON WHO DEFINES IT

Inservice education is traditionally the responsibility of the local school district through its administrators. In practice, however, studies are showing that where universities control the rewards to teachers who participate in inservice education (through awarding credits, for example), then higher education effectively controls the program. Where the school district controls the rewards (such as salary increments earned in the district's program), then the local administrators determine the program and define what it will be. In a few situations, the teachers' organization has negotiated for control over the professional development program. Also, there are usually mandates from the state department of education which shape or limit inservice education.

Different agencies tend to emphasize different aspects of inservice education. School administrators are most concerned with specific job competencies. Universities and state departments tend to focus on generalizable

competencies of the teacher as a member of the profession. Teachers appear to favor a highly individualized approach to career development, and are also more interested in working on their own pupils' problems.

THE DILEMMA

The dilemma for teacher education seems to be that there may be no specific guidelines for inservice education that are appropriate to every situation. Unlike the preparation of beginning teachers, the continuing education of experienced teachers may be not generalizable, but specific to the inservice education values held in each local setting.

CBTE AS AN EXAMPLE OF THE DILEMMA

The application of competency-based teacher education to inservice education illustrates the problem. The Committee on Performance Based Inservice Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) recently heard three presentations of programs in which CBTE strategies played very different roles.

One example was the "competency-oriented" program developed by Syracuse University in cooperation with a relatively large school system. The competencies in the program for teachers are higher levels of the competencies in the Syracuse preservice program, plus some additional ones considered appropriate only for experienced teachers. The program--goals, strategies, and evaluation processes--was designed by a team of educators under the general direction of a coordinating council, the majority of whose members were teachers. The long experience of Syracuse in developing one of the better-known CBTE preservice programs is to be exploited for the continuous development of professional skills by the participating teachers.

Another program described to the committee was the "teacher-designed" program developed by the Western Washington State College Teacher Corps Project. The assumption of that project was that teachers should design their own inservice education, and that the purpose should be the resolution of critical problems of pupils. In the early stages of that project there was no application of CBTE materials. Future uses of competency-based strategies depend upon how teachers perceive their own needs with respect to helping pupils, and whether or not such CBTE materials seem likely to meet those needs.

The third example described to the committee was the program developed by the Upland School District in California. The purpose of the program was to improve the performances by teachers in the district to specific criterion levels. The materials and criteria were based on materials developed by Madeleine Hunter. Teachers were released from classroom duties for the training. The school district administration supplied the resources for the program and organized the training process. Clearly, CBTE materials fit this program well.

All three programs seem effective to their respective sponsors. Obviously, the specific program activities are radically different. The place of competency-based strategies is quite different. The concept of competency-based teacher education can be the framework for the total program when

inservice education is defined as the continuous development of generic teaching skills. CBTE can be seen as a bank of strategies which may be drawn upon as specific and generalizable needs of teachers are identified. CBTE programs may not be appropriate at all, however, in some projects where teachers design their own professional development.

In theory, at least part of the competency-based concept should be applicable to any teacher education activity. In practice, however, the design of competency-based modules or other strategies requires large amounts of time and expertise. This fact suggests to teachers that if CBTE is proposed they are being asked to accept a program which has already been developed by outside specialists. For teachers, the major reform in inservice education is not so much a radical improvement in the method of delivering training programs, but rather the possibility that the clients of the program, the teachers, may govern their own professional development.

The application of competency-based teacher education to inservice seems to depend upon the purposes of each specific program. Probably the same generalization applies in some degree to all characteristics of local programs.

DETERMINERS OF INSERVICE PROGRAMS

A blend of local conditions probably determines the purpose of inservice education for each specific project. At least four factors contribute to this local set:

1. The person or agency who has most control over the reward system will have certain priorities.
2. The state, local board of education, and the federal government may have laid on guidelines which limit or shape the program. These two factors contribute heavily to
3. The operational meaning of inservice education. This meaning is perhaps most critically defined by
4. The role of teachers. Is inservice education something which is (or should be) done to teachers? Should it be done *by* and/or *with* teachers?

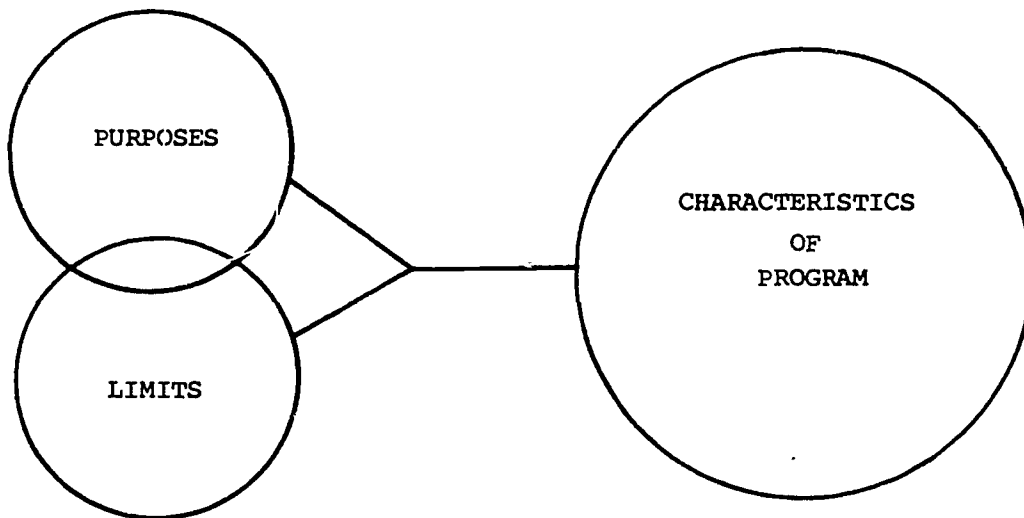
These four factors will reflect the status of inservice education in the local setting and will have much to do with how the planning team defines *what ought to be* the nature of inservice education. Two other local factors probably have the most to do with determining *what is possible*. These two factors are:

1. The resources which are available for inservice education--both human and material; and
2. The incentives for teachers to undertake inservice education.

There will also be incentives for agencies--for the local school district, the cooperating university, the teachers' organization, and perhaps the community.

The characteristics of the actual inservice plan are logical consequences of the value judgments which shape purposes, and the resources and rewards which determine the impact of the program.

Figure 1. Determiners of Inservice Programs



In addition to the four factors which seem to have much influence on purpose and the two factors which seem to set limits for the program, there appear to be nine factors which characterize the resultant program. All 15 factors are described in Table 1. In the table, there is also an attempt to indicate some of the numerous alternatives for each factor.

TABLE 1. VARIATIONS AMONG FIFTEEN FACTORS AFFECTING INSERVICE EDUCATION

1. Authority structure, or control: Who owns the program? Who controls the rewards? Granted that all effective programs involve the groups who will be affected in the decision-making process, nearly always one of the agencies has the most weight in determining the thrust of the program. Variations:

One agency controls the rewards and effectively dominates the planning.	---- A combination of two agencies dominates decision making.	---- All agencies collaborate on goals; the weight of decision making shifts with different issues.
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2. Mandates: What state regulations, legislation, federal guidelines, or local district requirements shape possible inservice education program goals? Variations:

State licensing standards, college degree requirements, state laws, and/or federal guidelines set so many mandates that there is no room for local option.	---- Program goals are limited to some options in addition to those set by law or regulation.	---- Local districts may set their own program goals.
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3. What does inservice education mean in operational terms to local teams? Variations:

Credential oriented: credits in college courses or workshops which may apply to license.	---- Orientation is to local problems and concerns. Teachers undertake projects to revise curriculum, revise methods.
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Individual teachers select experiences.	---- Approved programs are those designed for school improvement.
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Upgrading specific skills of teachers.	---- Experiences leading to self-actualization.
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4. The role of teachers in the program: Are teachers seen as subjects for remedial instruction? Are they thought of as needing constant monitoring to be sure that they are accountable for basic skills? Are they thought to be fully credentialed professionals, capable of designing their own continuing education? Variations:

Teachers are passive in planning, and receive what is presented.

---- Teachers are active in planning, receive what is presented.

---- Teachers are active in planning, perform as part of presentation teams.

Teachers are in need of retraining or upgrading.

---- Teachers are lifelong students of teaching.

---- Teachers are fully credentialed clinicians.

5. Resources: How much program will there be? How much expertise can be brought to the site? How much time of teachers will be released? What will be the effects of outside funding? Variations:

No funds are budgeted.

---- District regularly funds a small amount.

---- District regularly provides substantial portion of budget for inservice.

Outside funds, if available, support entire program.

---- Outside funds enlarge regular program.

---- Outside funds are used for program development; local funds underwrite operation of program.

6. Incentives: What are the extrinsic and what are the intrinsic rewards? Variations:

No rewards; teachers comply with mandates.

---- Inservice credits geared to salary increments.

---- Salary increments, plus changes in job assignment which allow teachers discretionary time.

Avoidance of penalty, such as failure to be licensed.

---- Professional satisfaction by individual teachers.

---- Professional satisfaction by individual plus satisfaction in knowledge that their organization controls the program.

7. What is the potential role of CBTE? Variations:

No CBTE; program is oriented to activities.

---- CBTE materials are used incidentally.

---- Inservice is organized as a comprehensive CBTE program.

8. How are performance objectives, or specific goals, defined? Variations:

Defined by outside agency, such as state,
federal agency, university faculty.

---- Defined by local school personnel.

Defined within the framework of an overall
plan, such as CBTE.

---- Determined periodically on the basis of current
needs.

Individual teachers plan own objectives.

---- A task force representing all personnel specifies
the objectives.

9. What is the nature of the content of the program? Variations:

Teachers choose from a catalog of offerings.

---- Content is dependent on the problem selected for
study by school faculty.

Systematic curriculum; logical sequence of
topics.

---- Topical, varies from year to year.

Deals with academic specialty
areas.

---- Deals with techniques of
teaching.

---- Deals with problems of pupils.

10. How will the program be delivered? Variations:

Traditional courses, workshops.

---- Innovative individual projects; action research.

Presented by outside specialists.

---- Teachers organize and solve problems, call on out-
side specialists to serve as consultants.

Teachers work on own time.

---- Teachers provided time during regular work day for
independent or group study.

11. What are the roles of the teachers of teachers? Variations:

Teachers of teachers are outside specialists.

---- Teachers themselves are both trainers and trainees;
experts act as consultants.

Teachers of teachers primarily are presenters
of content.

---- Teachers of teachers primarily stimulate activities
of participants and encourage self-instruction.

12. How is the community involved? Variations:

Community involved only indirectly; for example, parents hear about program from children. ---- Community is represented in all major phases of the program--goal setting, serving as resources, evaluating outcomes.

Only parents involved.

---- A wide range of community representatives are involved in addition to parents.

Program is directed toward state or national goals.

---- Program reflects aspirations of community for its youth.

13. How will teachers' participation be assessed? Variations:

Teachers graded as in the traditional academic process.

---- Teachers assess their own progress.

Assessment in terms of new knowledge and skill on part of teachers.

---- Assessment in terms of pupil achievements.

14. What is the process for monitoring the program? Variations:

One, or a combination, of the agencies involved checks that teachers complete requirements.

---- A task force representing all agencies and teachers compares achievements of participants to specified objectives; recommends changes as program develops.

15. What are the long-term goals? Variations:

Teachers will have met state requirements.

---- Teachers will express satisfaction in their professional achievements.

---- The school will adopt the program which the inservice pilot tested.

Some of the factors have more influence in determining local purposes; some are more likely to determine the impact of a given program; and others describe the operational program which results. It is an oversimplification, however, to assert that purpose is affected *only* by Factors 1 through 4. Sometimes the knowledge that an attractive mode for delivering training is available (such as well-written competency-based modules) influences the purpose of the local program. Similarly, some of the factors besides local *resources* and *incentives* for teachers may set limits on the program. For instance, the available *delivery systems* may be a factor in determining the impact of the program.

Although purpose for a local program reflects values of those who define the purpose, it is not quite true that all purposes are equally acceptable and that consequently all kinds of practices are equally effective for inservice education. Research on inservice education is not definitive, but there are some generalizations about effective practices which have broad support in the literature. Regardless of the set of values which determine the local program, these standards seem to apply:

1. Decisions should be made through a collaborative process involving all the agencies that will participate in the program. It is particularly important that the teachers who will be clients of the program are involved in the planning stages.
2. Program objectives which are very specific tend to be realized more often than those which are broadly stated; for example, specific teaching performances are outcomes more often than are changes in teachers' attitudes.
3. Alternatives should be designed which make allowances for teachers who differ in experience and other traits.
4. Resources should be adequate to complete the tasks which are planned. It is particularly important to provide sufficient time for teachers to carry out the projected activities.
5. There should be intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for teachers.
6. Evaluation should include measures of both teacher growth and effects upon pupils. At least, there should be some systematic evaluation of inservice education.

These general principles suggested by the literature on inservice education, however, do not eliminate many possible variations of programs. The three "scenarios" which follow illustrate some of the variations possible in inservice programs which meet these general standards. The descriptions in the scenarios do not apply to actual programs. The characteristics of each of the three scenarios, however, are not imaginary; each local condition, program component, and characteristic is a description of some part of a real inservice program. Only the assembly of program elements is different from reality.

The three scenarios differ in almost every respect. To begin with, the role of the teacher as the client of inservice education is different. In the first scenario, the teacher is a career-long student of teaching. In the second, the teacher is a fully credentialed problem solver, or clinician (not a student at all). In the final scenario, the teacher is thought of as highly individualistic, needing unique training services which are not necessarily related to what other teachers might receive.

Beginning with different conceptions of the role of the teacher in the program, all the other aspects of inservice education seem to evolve as different characteristics of the three programs.

THREE SCENARIOS

1. BELLEHAVEN

Bellehaven is a fairly large suburban school system near a large state university. The two systems have a long history of collaboration. During the past five years, the Education faculty and teachers in a cluster of the district's schools have tested and refined a competency-based program for future teachers. The experience has been gratifying; in fact, the program is being proposed to AACTE for a Distinguished Achievement Award in Teacher Education. Another product of this satisfying collaboration has been a plan for a Teacher Center. The main thrust of the Teacher Center will be an innovative program for the continuous professional development of the participating teachers.

Teachers in the system have considerable trust in the good faith and expertise of the university faculty. Representative teachers, administrators, university faculty, and community members (the Teacher Center Council) have agreed that the new inservice program will be an extension of their successful CBTE program for teacher candidates. A faculty team has been given time by the university to develop appropriate adaptations of the basic CBTE program. Two teachers have been selected by the school representatives on the Council to act as liaison staff to the CBTE development team.

The university will grant credit to teachers meeting the CBTE performance objectives. The credit will be applied both to salary increments and to the state requirements for recertification.

During the first two years, the new CBTE program will be piloted in five elementary schools, one junior high school, and a senior high school. After the first two years, the Teacher Center Council and the university will review the program and decide on appropriate next steps.

The Teacher Center is in the process of developing a proposal for a Teacher Corps grant. Although the district has committed funds for the program, and the credits which will be earned by teachers in the CBTE program will generate state funds, a Teacher Corps grant could extend the support of the program so that more experts and more teacher time could be allotted to the project. The proposal writing team, however, is disturbed because federal guidelines limit the Teacher Corps project to one school building, and require that the first six months of the grant be devoted to planning without any actual inservice programming. The Teacher Center Council has decided to withdraw the Teacher Corps proposal if these conditions cannot be negotiated.

2. OUTBACK CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

The second scenario describes inservice education at Outback Consolidated Schools, a union of rural schools spread over a large area. For many years, the turnover rate for teachers in these schools was high. Contacts with the nearest State College were infrequent and had little impact on the quality of the school program. These two conditions have changed in the past six years. First, there has been very little staff turnover; even the superintendent has stayed for six years. Second, the State College, partly because of the clear need for a way to keep Education professors employed in the face of declining enrollment, now has a close association with Outback through a joint Teacher Corps project. The project was begun two years ago and has just been re-funded for another two-year cycle.

The state was one of the first to adopt standards defining collaborative approaches to teacher education. The Outback Consortium complies with these new state standards. The school district, the State College, and the Outback Education Association are equal members of the Policy Council, which decides all issues concerned with teacher education in the district, and appoints all task forces to develop or carry out inservice education programs. An important development in Outback Schools is the new status of the Education Association. The district has survived the new militancy of the Association in negotiations for salaries and benefits, and the superintendent is comfortable now in dealing with the organization on professional development matters.

The inservice program which is planned reflects the new status of teachers and their organization. The teachers in each building design their own procedures for assessing the needs of children; they then set priorities among the most critical of the pupil needs identified. The school district pays for enrollment fees for each teacher with the State College. These fees then buy the time of State College consultants who will work with individual teachers or teams of teachers on specific projects intended to help the staff resolve the most critical of pupil problems. Each teacher negotiates a contract to complete a specific project; a representative of each agency in the Council signs off on the contract. The improvement of teaching performance is secondary to the improvement of pupil performance. The teachers feel that they are in the best position to determine their own professional needs, as they focus upon pupil problems.

The inservice plan was tested in the Teacher Corps project, and will be extended and refined as a major part of the new Teacher Corps project.

The superintendent and community representatives feel that inasmuch as the teachers have agreed to focus upon pupil needs rather than teacher needs, their concerns will be met.

The State College is not sure how this arrangement will work. The Graduate Council is uneasy about giving credit for projects which the teachers (graduate students) instead of professors will design. Individual faculty members are not accustomed to being resource persons instead of instructors. The college, however, needs the student credit hours.

The teachers, of course, have not only the satisfaction of credits and help on their major instructional problems, but also the knowledge that they exercise considerable control over their job conditions through the power of their organization.

3. JOHNSON CITY

The third scenario is a sketch of the inservice program at Johnson City, a large city with the special challenges of most urban education systems. The needs of teachers vary somewhat from school to school. For example, the problems of the central district schools are different from those at the outer borders of the city. The school superintendent and principals tend to hold their positions for long terms. The teacher organization is dominated by older high school teachers. There is a Policy Council on Professional Development which was set up by the superintendent. The Council has agreed that the goal of the inservice program is to provide for the professional needs of individual teachers through as wide an offering of experiences as can be obtained.

The school district, with the support of the Policy Council on Professional Development, has established a schedule of salary increments based on teachers' completing units in the school district's own inservice programs. The teachers may elect night classes, workshops, attendance at district-organized institutes, individualized instruction on CBTE modules, and other education experiences, if these are approved by the district. Neither the administrators nor the teachers on the Council are interested in organizing inservice education around a few major objectives. Each year the district, with the support of the Council, organizes a set of workshops and institutes for the coming year. The subjects for these programs may be proposed by any member of the staff. Most are proposed by administrators.

Teachers pay nominal fees for these programs. Most of the costs are borne by the district. A number of universities in the area participate through their continuing education divisions. Last year the Policy Council conducted a survey of teacher attitudes toward the district's inservice program. Teachers and principals were very positive about their experiences.

Central School in Johnson City is beginning the fifth year of a Teacher Corps project in cooperation with a State University. Up to now the emphasis has been upon preparing new teachers for careers in multiethnic communities. The new Teacher Corps program will emphasize inservice education for the teachers already employed in that school. The plan is to organize and then to carry out a continuing seminar on multicultural education. The Central School will request district approval for courses and workshops on multicultural education which will be held at the school, and which other teachers may attend. Teacher Corps funds will pay for enrollments of the Central School staff and for the consultants who will present the courses and workshops.

The Policy Council and the administration look on the new Central School Teacher Corps Project as a pilot study. If the program is as successful after two years as its beginning indicates, it may become the model for all the elementary schools in Johnson City.

Table 2 contrasts the three scenarios with respect to 15 factors of inservice education programs.

DIFFERENT, BUT EQUALLY EFFECTIVE

If the directors of these three inservice programs were invited to a national meeting and asked to defend their respective programs, they might all make very similar claims. Each might describe a highly effective

collaborative system for making program decisions. Each might point out provisions for meeting different needs and interests of individual teachers. All three programs might have equal claims to being directed toward specific training objectives which are appropriate to local circumstances. The resources which are provided in all three are adequate and reflect a continuing commitment by the school districts. There is in each case a systematic approach to evaluating the progress of teachers and also a method for assessing the worth of the total program.

As a matter of fact, all three programs may be equally effective--different, but equal.

STEPS IN PLANNING INSERVICE EDUCATION

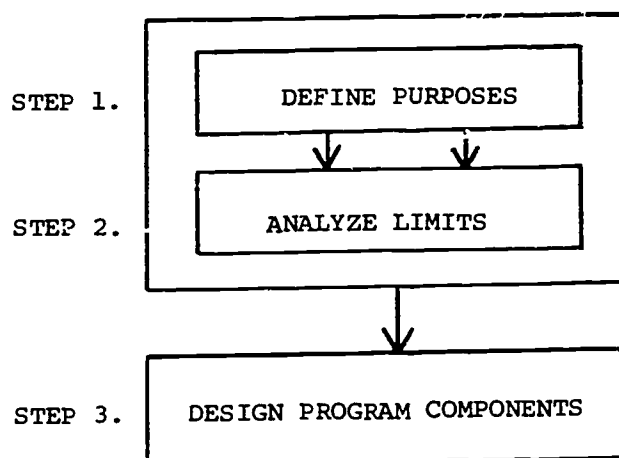
Are there some lessons to be learned from this analysis? Given the complexity of planning programs on the basis of variable conditions and sets of values regarding inservice education, there still are a few procedures which seem indicated.

It seems clear that a planning team should attempt first to define the purposes for an inservice education effort. An analysis of local conditions will probably indicate what is, or has been, the status of inservice education. Mandates from external agencies and the aspirations of local participants will help define what ought to be the nature of the program.

A study of the potential resources and incentives will determine what is possible. Then the actual program should be planned to achieve the possible.

The six principles drawn from the literature represent the current wisdom for assessing the quality of the plan. Figure 2 illustrates this planning process.

Figure 2. Steps in Planning Inservice Education



It seems likely that for the foreseeable future, inservice programs will vary in many ways. As long as there is wide variation in the purposes for inservice education, there will be very different programs--different but, potentially, equally effective.

TABLE 2. THE THREE SCENARIOS COMPARED ON INSERVICE EDUCATION

SCENARIOS	1. BELLEHAVEN	2. OUTBACK	3. JOHNSON CITY
<hr/>			
A. <u>Local Conditions</u>			
1. Authority structure	IHE controls rewards and determines programs	Teachers through their organization define objectives	LEA coordinates programs and sets rewards
2. Mandates	State certification law	State guidelines for collaboration	Local board sets requirements for continuing development
3. Inservice means--	Continuous teacher growth in generic performances	Critical problems of pupils are resolved	Growth of each teacher as a member of the profession
4. Role of teacher	Student of teaching	Clinician, problem solver; colleague of consultants	Active receiver of services--decides among alternative programs
<hr/>			
B. <u>Impact Factors</u>			
5. Resources	LEA budgets for five-year program with state assistance	LEA pays as part of its regular commitment to professional development	LEA; individual teachers pay fees for credits
Federal funds	Support and extend materials, experts, teacher time for planning	Make experimental program possible	Provide added alternative
6. Rewards	Salary increment and recertification	a. Salary increments b. Knowledge of increased control over job conditions c. Professional satisfaction in knowledge of pupil growth	a. Salary increments b. Satisfy LEA requirements for professional development

C. Program
Characteristics

7. Place of CBTE	CBTE <u>is</u> the program	CBTE is incidental	Modules from CBTE programs are among options available to teachers
8. How are goals set?	Subsumed by the CBTE program	Teachers collectively assess needs of pupils	Individual teachers determine indirectly by their choices; administrators determine the possible choices
9. Content	Generic teaching competencies	Unsystematic; defined by teachers on basis of problems to be resolved	Determined by designer of each alternative program
10. Delivery system	Individual modules and workshops	Teachers negotiate individual contracts	Traditional courses, workshops, projects
11. Roles of trainer	IHE faculty are presenters; teachers are advanced teachers	Teachers are both students and trainers	Each program presented by expert
12. Community involvement	Representatives on Teacher Center Council, which is advisory	Representatives are on Council which monitors programs	Most community involvement is with the Teacher Corps project
13. How teachers are assessed	Meet specific criteria for each competency	Satisfactory completion of contracts designed by the teacher and signed by representatives of Consortium	Accumulate credits on district-approved programs
14. Monitor program by	Professors analyzing teacher progress on CBTE program	Policy Council analyzing effects of teacher contracts upon pupil needs	Surveying teachers' opinions as to value of programs
15. Long-term consequences	Most teachers will achieve criterion levels of performance; new teachers will be presented with refined CBTE program	Consortium will redefine roles of teachers and re-allocate resources so that there will be a continuing school improvement program	All legitimate felt needs of teachers can be met by alternative programs provided by the school district

Part Two

A Framework for Planning
Alternative Approaches to
Inservice Teacher Education

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INTRODUCTION

Inservice teacher education (ISTE) has recently been a topic of considerable interest in the education professions. The responsibilities and relationships of several role groups and agencies to one another in this endeavor are now being reexamined. The various roles which teachers, administrators, and higher education personnel might best assume in inservice are not as clear as they once seemed. As would be expected, this intensified interest in ISTE has probably raised more issues than it has pushed forward new horizons. The primary purpose of this monograph is to review a number of basic conditions which should be considered in planning for more viable inservice alternatives and to help resolve some of those issues.

The position taken here is that the "whys" and "hows" of inservice will be understood more clearly if this endeavor is examined in relationship to foreseeable changes in (a) the total approach to teacher education and (b) school conditions in general. Responsible planning for inservice must anticipate and, in fact, facilitate a changing teacher role. Inservice must also be more firmly rooted in our understandings of a changing adult personality and perspective. The question of what conditions are necessary for a personal commitment to continuing professional development also deserves more attention than it has received in the past. The relationship between these factors and inservice is the major theme throughout this paper.

Since the monograph speaks to those conditions which must be considered if inservice teacher education is to result in more coherent and conceptually related variations, it does not review specific alternative inservice projects as such. Basic trends in inservice are noted only to provide a realistic backdrop for major inservice decisions which have to be made. Specific examples from the writer's personal experience are also cited to illustrate important concepts. These references in no way imply, however, that "the" model for inservice has somehow been magically discovered on the often frozen plains of Minnesota.

In summary, it is hoped the reader will gain an enriched perspective of the diverse elements which might appropriately be considered in planning alternative approaches to inservice teacher education.

INSERVICE: RHETORIC OR REAL POTENTIAL?

CONSTRAINING FACTORS

A number of conditions would seem to constrain against any major improvement in inservice practices at this time. First, a rather permeating paralysis has been created, with respect to program innovations, by the depressed economy. This "tight" money situation has other effects as well. Advanced degree programs, for example, lose much of their appeal as a means of continuing education when jobs are scarce. School budgets are in many respects more accommodative to teachers meeting minimal education requirements than to those with advanced degrees.

In addition, whatever advances have been achieved to date in terms of teachers' salaries and benefits have come at the expense of an escalating

local tax base. Given this situation, there is often little sympathy or support locally for ISTE. This is especially true when teaching is seen by many people as only a three-quarter time (nine months per year) job. It would seem that teachers of all people have more than enough time to take care of such niceties as their continuing education, on their own time and at their own expense.

Second, the aborted social activism of the late sixties and early seventies heightened skepticism as to the ability of teachers and schools to contribute significantly to goals in the areas of interpersonal growth and social reconstruction. The functions of the school are interpreted by many to be more limited in scope and traditional in nature today. This understandable desire for stability in the schools hardly suggests the need for extensive inservice, especially when the teaching force is increasingly experienced and stable as well, in terms of assignment to the same role.

Finally, many are suspicious of whether teacher education does any actual good, no matter how well it might be funded. Support for teacher education is tentative at best when the effects of teacher training are not that demonstrable. Haberman vividly illustrated such criticism when he stated:

Most college faculty perform in a neverland that falls between sound theory and competent practice. Neither composers nor performers, we are Lawrence Welks in academe. The rare scholar with a unifying theory of learning or curriculum can be written off as "impractical" while the effective practitioner is inevitably "poorly grounded" (i.e., he lacks an advanced degree). Most education faculty have a few generalizations that we pass off as theoretic principles, and a few illustrations that we pass off as practical expertise.¹

Criticisms of inservice programs conducted by schools are equally familiar and need no documentation here. Edelfelt summarized his perception of the state of the scene recently:

There has never been a broad scheme of inservice education with a clear concept of purpose, appropriate undergirding of policy, legitimacy in commitment, and fixed responsibility for attaining agreed-upon goals. It is with a broad scheme that we now want to deal; lesser schemes will be too incomplete to work. The broad scheme must include at least four frameworks: *conceptual, legal-organizational, design, and support* (money, etc.); and all must be seen in context.²

ENABLING FACTORS

On the other side of the coin, powerful counterforces exist which account for the current emphasis on ISTE. We must understand these, in addition to the constraining factors, if inservice is to be advanced on organizational and political, as well as conceptual, fronts. While there are obvious economic constraints on what can be done, we are hardly without options. Continuing teacher education, as demonstrated in Phase One of the ISTE Concepts Study,³ is in reality supported by a rather vast and complex organization. General estimates suggested that a combined

total of 70,000 to 80,000 education professors, supervisors, and consultants are engaged either full or part time in inservice education. Also, almost 100,000 principals and vice-principals are employed in our 17,000 school districts, as well as 50,000 nonsupervisory support personnel, such as reading specialists and media experts. There could easily be, then, a quarter of a million persons directly connected in some way with inservice.

It should be noted that these estimates do not include the many teachers who teach other teachers, such as team leaders, helping teachers, or departmental chairpersons. Nor do these estimates include the variety of personnel at State and Intermediate Agency levels assigned to deal with inservice teacher education. In addition, a very large private sector provides various forms of inservice; publishing houses and major corporations with a technological orientation are but two examples.

Finally, released time for attendance at conferences and conventions is a common ISTE format. These efforts represent a sizable monetary and personnel investment in inservice teacher education and illustrate yet another source of persons who contribute considerably to inservice--the staff members of professional organizations.

In response, then, to the general concern about limited resources, it was concluded in Phase One of the study that:

The size of this apparent investment is confusing for several reasons. First, it is confusing because so many people seem to feel the effort is very weak--even impoverished--and is a relative failure. Second, most districts and higher education institutions evidently believe that more funds are urgently needed to develop adequate staff development programs. Third, if the above estimates are at all reasonable, then we are led to the unnerving conclusion that one of the largest training enterprises in the United States is an incredible failure!

If one out of eight of all educational personnel is trying to help others in the field grow professionally, then this failure cannot simply be a matter of investment of time or energy. There are obviously enormous structural problems in the way ISTE is being operated which have to be resolved. . . .4

The structural and organizational problems attendant to ISTE are of a different nature than financial ones (again not to deny real financial constraints in many cases). In order to resolve these types of problems we might look to: (a) reallocation and/or retraining of inservice teacher educators; (b) more creative collaboration between personnel in different systems, agencies, and institutions; and (c) a rethinking of the ways in which inservice can best be provided. Each of these strategies will be addressed in more detail later on.

In response to the second concern--the desire for a more stable curriculum--there may well be a longing for a return to the "good old days," but such thinking collides head on with reality. Certainly recent legislative and judicial direction suggests that the three Rs are not enough. Mainstreaming, desegregation, and greater equality for women call for a broadened, not a lessened, societal role for the schools. Increasingly, pressures for us to change will come from beyond our nation's boundaries.

Powerful catalytic forces are fermenting around the globe, such as the call for a more equitable distribution of limited basic resources among nations. In the near future, our awareness of international community and brotherhood could well be heightened and tested as never before. If only the very best of traditional approaches to schooling were maintained, they still would not be enough to meet the challenges of the future. Schools cannot and will not be insulated from the host of problems and changes around them. As one looks critically ahead at the future function of schools, more--not less--inservice for teachers seems inevitable.

Finally, in response to criticisms about teacher education, while admittedly we have much to do, we also have made some very real strides, at least instructionally. Advances have been made in our understanding of adult learning and development, for example, which can provide part of the conceptual framework needed for the continuing education of teachers. Numerous strategies have been developed to help teachers analyze and better understand their teaching, and these have contributed to more effective inservice. Likewise, we have expanded our knowledge base concerning when and how feedback about performance is best provided. The development of specific teaching techniques has been enhanced through such training formats as microteaching and the multiple types of instruction interrelated in the Minicourse⁵ sequence. Protocol materials have made possible more vivid illustrations of theory in practice. Insights gained from clinical supervision and approaches to organization development have also contributed to our understanding of the inservice process. We are not lacking, then, in both proven and potentially productive tools and strategies. Again, the primary problem seems related more to an overly narrow conceptualization of inservice and an inability to organize well and interrelate what we do know.

FUTURE SCHOOL ALTERNATIVES: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER INSERVICE

Before alternative concepts of inservice are discussed, alternative concepts of schooling should be noted briefly.

Recently we have had many examples of alternative programs and alternative schools. Open classrooms, open-space schools, schools-within-a-school, schools without walls, individually guided or prescribed instruction, multicultural schools, free schools, and work-study schools present us with familiar terms, if not always well delineated concepts. The development of alternative schools, however, has generally been a reactionary and rather random process, and the impact to date of any specific alternative in changing the basic approach to schooling is problematical.

Kiesling,⁶ in his projections of how schools might change in the United States, predicted that four basic alternative instructional strategies would evolve. None of these alternatives is radical in nature, yet it is his estimate that these changes would not be achieved on any large scale until 1990. The first alternative strategy he envisions suggests a better balance between more conventional and variant approaches within the same school programs, in this way providing a greater degree of student flexibility. The second strategy would change schools more basically, in terms of differentiated, yet complementary, teacher roles. The third

strategy would go beyond this redefinition of roles to add substantial amounts of educational technology; and the fourth, which begins to take on an enlarged concept of schooling, would have technology increasingly provide instruction in the home and other locations outside the conventional school facility. The costs he projects for each of these four variations increase with each strategy and support the idea of some type of developmental sequence in how schools will change over time.

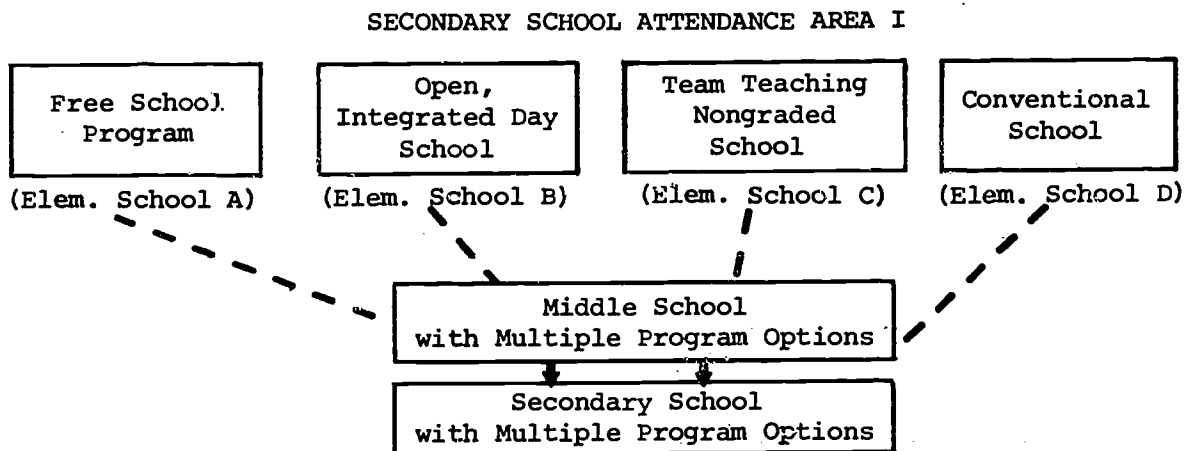
It is difficult, however, to say exactly what will happen to schools in the future which will alter the teachers' role. School reform movements have generally been spurred by a commitment to some larger ideal than better use of our existing technology. Our insensitivity to others, especially when they are of a different color or belief; behavior seemingly divorced from moral and ethical considerations; and a cultural and aesthetic vacuousness are but some of the fundamental concerns behind recent efforts to seek new forms of schooling. Such concerns do not deny the crucial need for schools to help all students achieve the traditional "basics"; rather, they vividly underscore the broader nature of education's unfinished agenda.

Today many parents with elementary school-age children are concerned not only that their child learns to read, but when and how he undertakes such activity. Schools in the future will increasingly be seen as responsive and responsible to the degree that they offer some variation in instructional format with respect to common school subjects as well as offering optional curricula. For example, some desire an experiential approach to reading, others a structured skill approach. Each approach contains implicit corollary values. A social studies curriculum can be prestructured around rigorous inquiry into a number of related disciplines, or it can evolve from an experiential social activist stance. Opportunities for elementary school children to work through problems using wood, metal, or clay are seen as essential to development by some and as unnecessary frills by others.

Considerable variation already exists between teachers, in terms of both curricular modifications and teaching style. A major problem at this time is that even where such natural variation between teachers does exist, a strictly random process determines whether these different teaching approaches match the interests of parents and the needs of their children who usually are placed arbitrarily in classrooms. Rarely does the community have these differences between teachers spelled out as possible alternatives, much less have any choice in the placement of the children.

Regardless of fiscal conditions at this time, the position taken here is that more variation and choice between teachers could be provided. For example, some alternative could be offered between individual teachers at a given grade level or between teams or clusters of teachers cutting across age levels. While it is not an easy objective to achieve, more differentiated and responsive school programs are hardly impossible. Planned program variation in the Minneapolis School District has been implemented on a very broad scale. Here the plan extends beyond a school and calls for systems or arrays of alternatives between schools. The school-community in a high school attendance area has up to three or four separate elementary school programs from which to select. Figure 1 illustrates this process.

FIGURE 1



Program variation is planned *between* separate school facilities in fairly close geographic proximity, or separate programs are offered in larger school complexes. Children are bused to the school of their choice. The degree of planned variation in the schools in each attendance area reflects the degree of actual difference of opinions in that specific school community about how schools should operate and what the priorities should be. Not only the degree of variation, but the type of variation will vary from one school community to another.

This brief example of a more systemic approach to alternatives is included here to illustrate that (a) *there is considerable community desire for alternatives within one urban community*, and (b) *it is possible to implement alternative programs on a broad scale*. When efforts are made to incorporate variations or alternatives more centrally within the mainstream concept of schools, and there is an emphasis on dialogue with the community about the means and ends of educational programs, then considerable role variation for teachers is *legitimatized* and accommodated.

THE CHANGING TEACHER ROLE

It is imperative that inservice be viewed in a context of teacher roles that will become increasingly complex and diverse. Just as there are multiple examples of program variation at this time, there have been efforts as well to conceptualize specific variations in the teaching role. Corrigan,⁷ in his analysis of future changes in education personnel, offered the following examples of possible role specialities in future team teaching arrangements:

- Research Associate
- Associate in Teacher Education
- Curriculum Associate
- Diagnostician--Learning and Teaching
- Visual Literacy Specialist
- Computer-Assisted Instruction Specialist
- Systems Analyst and Evaluator
- Simulation and Gaming Specialist
- Professional Negotiator
- Liaison--Community, Inquiry, Social Agencies

Burdin,⁸ in his comprehensive review of the literature on futuristic education, suggested that the best professional preparation programs by 1990, or less than fifteen years from now, should generate the following specialized teaching roles:

- Values Developers
- Resource Finders
- Learning Diagnosticians and Prescription Specialists
- Interdisciplinary Liaison Specialists
- Human Relations Developers
- Career and Leisure Counselors
- Community Learning Facilitators
- Professional Builders and Leaders
- Futuristic Planners
- Teaching-Learning Specialists

Discussion of alternatives in inservice teacher education then should be embedded in the certainty of a changing teacher role. Joyce underscores our responsibility in this respect:

The old education, created by a simple, stable world of primitive media, focused on simple lines of social life within the extended family and simple career lines within a slowly changing economic world, has disappeared as a stable force. To continue to educate children for the past world is a travesty of educational morality.

And, to state it another way:

The primary setting of education, the classroom, and the chief mediator of instruction, the multipurpose teacher, are obsolete.⁹

Obviously, some would argue with the latter statement. The considerable diversity of opinion about the degree to which the teaching role should and will change is acknowledged. Nonetheless, the position taken here is that a dominant consideration in inservice education should be how to diminish the rapidly accelerating gap between 19th and 20th century schooling practices and a 21st century world. The more intimate involvement of individual teachers in their continuing education, as witnessed in many of the inservice approaches today, is long overdue. Our vision of reform in inservice teacher education, however, must extend beyond this. For all of the beauty, strength, and grandeur of this nation, we are also confronted with severe problems. One has only to reflect for a minute on the chronology of events reported on any evening newscast to realize that bolder steps are needed to achieve what education must accomplish. We have barely scratched the surface in utilizing the talented configurations of personnel we might bring into our most precious public resource--our system of education. *The first alternative to consider is: inservice for what kind of schools and what kind of teachers?*

At this time there is a very considerable waste of personnel resources in this country. Learning environments in the schools could be enriched by an array of personal knowledge and interpersonal attention far beyond the scope of any one teacher--no matter how talented or committed to his or her

task. Such resources beg to be utilized. Yet we move forward basically on the premise of providing periodic injections of inservice to individual teachers. We do this in the face of rather incontrovertible evidence that significant social change demands collaborative action. Haberman expressed the frustration five years ago:

We wasted a decade trying to equalize schooling by appealing to individuals. NDEA Institutes, master's programs, sabbaticals, etc., like all historical efforts to improve teacher education, are based upon the monumental idiocy that each Susie Smith will, in the process of pursuing her own best interests, make a contribution that will culminate into important social change.¹⁰

DEFINING INSERVICE: ALTERNATIVE PERSPECTIVES

Inservice teacher education is a coat of many colors. It can encompass activities undertaken independently and decided autonomously, or it can reflect mandated activity for all teachers. It can be a simple one-time-only endeavor, or it can be an ongoing developmental program representing a range of related activities over a number of months and even years. It can result in no other reward than the inherent enjoyment of participating, or it can have a number of concomitant benefits attached: dollars, credits, released time, or desired career change. It can have no direct relationship to schooling, or it can be tied directly to teacher and/or student desired behavior.

A number of terms are used synonymously with inservice: staff development, personnel development, continuing education, professional development, continuing personnel or professional development, and recurrent education. Definitions have been provided. Edelfelt, in *Rethinking Inservice Education*, states:

Inservice education of teachers (or staff development, continuing education, professional development) is defined as any professional development activity that a teacher undertakes singly, or with other teachers, after receiving his or her initial teaching certificate, and after beginning professional practice.¹¹

Joyce provides a more concise definition:

Every teacher is also a career long student. That portion of his education which follows in time (1) his initial certification and (2) employment is known as "inservice teacher education."¹²

Marsh¹³ recently reviewed how ISTE has been perceived and defined by persons looking at it from a variety of perspectives. He suggests that inservice can be categorized as to whether it is primarily directed toward (a) personal growth, (b) professional development, or (c) implementing educational improvement activities. In a similar recommendation, Howsam suggests:

"Inservice" should be used to refer to employment-oriented education . . . activities which have as their intended purpose preparation

for specific program demands which decisions within the system have created. . . . The school should provide this education at school expense. "Continuing" (education) should refer to activities designed to supplement and extend the preservice education of teachers, and to update them on recent approaches and findings. . . . Payments of cost might come from continuing education money from district funds . . . from the teacher association treasury, and individual contributions.¹⁴

Certainly how educators define this concept is colored by the role they are in and the perspective from which they have observed and experienced inservice. Joyce¹⁵ suggests that specific differences in definitions can be analyzed by looking at how each of the following questions is addressed: when, what, where, by whom, for whom, through whom, and why.

When, for example, could indicate whether inservice begins after certification, after employment, after both, or even after a formal induction period. "When" could also address the issue of whether this is an activity which takes place after the teacher's instructional responsibilities are completed or integrated into this "prime time."

What indicates the range of activity included. Some would limit inservice to those activities designed specifically to improve instructional practice; others would delineate, as Marsh has, those activities which can bring about professional growth but are not training activity as such--staffing patterns or new curriculum materials, for example. Still others would determine inservice on the basis of formal, as opposed to informal, activity or professional, as opposed to personal, enrichment.

Where could indicate whether this concept is basically restricted to a school and school-related settings such as a teacher's center, or whether college and home study are legitimate settings for inservice. "Where" is directly related to the question of *by whom*. A basic concern, especially for many teachers, is who best provides inservice. Growing dissatisfaction has been expressed with respect to the traditional roles of district support personnel, school administrators, and professors in relation to ISTE. Not surprisingly, then, there is a growing movement for experienced teachers to assume a greater inservice coordination, planning, and instructional role. Who is the most appropriate and effective instructor in ISTE, however, most likely depends upon the specific type of inservice. A job-specific classroom problems orientation would suggest one type of instructor, a broad reconceptualization of a curriculum area another.

For whom deals with the question of whether inservice is defined basically as an activity for teachers to participate in or whether the participation of other educational personnel, such as administrators and counselors, is intended as well. Does the concept or definition of inservice account for training paraprofessionals and custodial and clerical personnel, or have any relationship to education for and with parents and community? For some, inservice is seen as transactional, with specific responsibilities outlined for those providing the inservice as well as those receiving it.

Through whom considers questions of an economic and political nature. The roles of the local education agency, the teacher both individually and as a member of a professional organization, administrators, staff development supervisors, boards of teaching, school boards, and state departments of education (specifically certification and licensing agents) may have to be delineated. This is a very complex issue and would not be articulated

in a definition *per se* of inservice so much as in a conceptual framework where legal and political responsibilities are explicated, as suggested by Edelfelt.

ALTERNATIVE DEPARTURE POINTS FOR INSERVICE

Finally, there is the *why* of inservice. This writer, building on the work of Bruce Joyce and Sam Yarger, suggests six primary departure points for *why* teachers engage in ISTE:

1. as induction activities to allow for movement from generalized preservice education to the assumption of a specific role - *transitional*
2. as a response to typically reoccurring needs and problems in one's situation - *job-specific*
3. as a response to more dramatic changes in society, and in turn schools, which mandate role reorientation or redefinition - *system related*
4. as a matter of staying current professionally without regard to immediate transfer or application to one's specific situation - *general professional development*
5. as a means of changing role or responsibilities - *career progression*
6. as a process of understanding and enhancing the person in a professional role - *personal development*.¹⁶

As tentative and imprecise as such an initial typology might be, attempts to articulate the different types of inservice should help to clarify some of the political boundaries in terms of who makes what decisions about what at this time. Figure 2, for example, illustrates some of the basic decisions that are made regarding ISTE.

These decisions are increasingly being made in collaborative decision-making structures which includes LEAs, colleges, teachers, and communities. It is suggested that the role each of the primary parties with a vested interest in inservice assumes in such a decision-making process would be somewhat differentiated by the primary reason for the teachers' involvement in that ISTE activity. This simple matrix scheme is for purposes of illustration and has obvious limitations. Nonetheless, a clearer delineation of different personal, professional, position-related, district-related, and generic inservice needs could be achieved by analyzing current activities with such a matrix. Roles in decision making might be clarified and a more balanced ISTE program could result.

ALTERNATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES FOR INSERVICE

What is lacking in the preceding figure for decisions about inservice to be accommodated is the specific context in which inservice programs are planned and provided. Such decision making can obviously take place at a

FIGURE 2

Role Role Group _____ <u>Sample Governance Question</u> , such as: Who has what role in deciding--	Whether To Participate	What Priorities Are	What Percentage of Each Goal Type	When ISTE Is Conducted	Where ISTE Is Conducted	Who Provides ISTE	How ISTE Is Financed	How ISTE Is Evaluated
<u>Sample Goal-Types</u>								
Transitional								
Job-Specific								
System-Related								
General Professional								
Career Progression								
Personal Development								

Possible Entities Involved in Decision Making

Individual Teachers
 Teachers Organization
 LEA School Board
 Staff Development Supervisor
 Building Administrator
 Higher Education Representatives
 School Faculty/Staff
 Community/Parents

Possible Roles

Unilateral Decision
 Joint Decision/Party Vote
 Contract Negotiations
 Joint Decision/but Party Has Majority Vote
 Joint Decision/but Party Has Minority Vote
 Advisory Only
 No Involvement

number of levels in a variety of organizational structures. Very often inservice decisions are made both at the school district level and within the context of individual schools. However, as stated earlier, other structures are evolving which are designed to provide for ISTE needs. Teacher's Centers, formalized partnerships between local districts and institutions of higher education, and training complexes operated by a consortium of parties with vested interests in ISTE are now common. Yarger, building upon his pioneer work in reviewing the range and type of teaching center-type structures in this country, has identified the following types of organizational structures for inservice programs:

Organizational Types

- (a) The Independent Inservice Program: The independent inservice program often represents an attempt to bring the essence of British programming to American soil. The focus is usually on the direct concerns of teachers. . . . there is no association with a formal educational institution, . . . red tape of the bureaucracy is severed and the program directors and implementers can respond directly to perceived client needs. Frequently, independent programs are administered and staffed by former (or current) teachers. Teachers become involved on a purely voluntary basis; thus the program has high teacher credibility. Financing is often tenuous. . . . The independent program is autonomous, accountable only to its own structure and clients.
- (b) The Almost Independent Inservice Program: The almost independent inservice program shares many common features with the independent. . . . The emphasis is on "real world" problems, and programming typically relates to activities, skills, materials, and so on that are directly applicable to the classroom situation. . . . Even though a formal institutional tie is evident, funding is quite often tenuous. It is frequently the strength and charisma of the personnel that provide the autonomy. . . .
- (c) The Professional Organization Inservice Program: Although rare, the impetus for the development of professional organization programs is clearly evident. In this instance, the inservice program is organized and operates in a framework of a professional organization. There may well be institutional support, but it is likely to be a result of the bargaining efforts of the organization and the institution. . . . There are two types: "negotiated" and "subject matter." The first will reflect the perceived needs of the constituent teachers as well as professional organization needs, while the subject area program usually emphasizes a particularly high priority classroom subject, e.g., reading. Policy may well be vested in the hands of a teacher committee, but will likely reflect professional as well as instructional issues.
- (d) The Single Unit Inservice Program: The single unit inservice program is probably the most common type in America. It is characterized by its exclusive relationship to and administration by

a single educational institution, usually a school system. This type of program may be organized and administered in a multitude of ways, but always with regard to a single political unit. . . . Accountability is usually to the administration of the institution, and the programming usually reflects approved institutional goals.

- (e) The Free Partnership Inservice Program: . . . Usually the partnership involves the school system and a university or college. It could, however, involve two school systems, two universities, or could even involve noneducational agencies. . . . it is entirely possible that one could find institutions involved in several two-party partnerships without attempting to establish a more wide-ranging multi-party relationship. The word "free" in this description refers to the fact that the partnership is entered into willingly, rather than being prescribed legislatively or politically. Structure, finance, and program will vary greatly, though in most cases there will be distinct evidence of attempts to accommodate the needs and goals of both institutional partners. . . .
- (f) The Free Consortium Inservice Program: A free consortium is characterized by three or more institutions, usually geographically close to one another, willingly entering into an inservice program relationship. The organization, commitments, and policy considerations will frequently be more complex and formal than in a partnership. . . .
- (g) Legislative/Political Inservice Program: This type of program is characterized by the fact that its organization and constituency are prescribed by legislative criteria or political influence. Often, but not always, the state department of education oversees the process. In a sense, it is a "forced" consortium. . . . It is not unusual for a financial incentive to exist in an effort to entice eligible institutions to become involved. Although this type of inservice program is frequently organized with regard to county boundaries, the organization may range from sub-county to a total state model.¹⁷

This portion of the typology deals only with prevalent models of organization for ISTE and does not address the primary functions they serve. Yarger also categorizes these organization structures as to whether they assume a facilitative or exploratory role, a basically responsive role, or primarily an advocacy role characterized by a particular philosophic or programmatic commitment.

Others have characterized approaches to inservice in parallel but less differentiated terms. Nelson,¹⁸ for example, has identified the following five basic organizational structures:

1. The Higher Education Model, in which schools or colleges of education are the primary providers of inservice through late afternoon and weekend courses, summer sessions, and extension courses

2. The Contemporary Topics Institutes, a common approach which utilizes a broader diversity of resources and consultants than the IHE model but lacks coherency and is designed primarily on the basis of what are perceived as "hot topics" at any given time; one time only workshops are common
3. The Commerce Model, an inservice pattern which primarily involves consultants and entrepreneurs who offer more extended training packages than the one-shot format typical in the contemporary topics model; Glasser's Classroom Meetings would be an example of this
4. The IHE-LEA Cooperative Model, in which there are planned attempts by the IHE to design and tailor program offerings more specifically to the needs of a district, and the school system serves in turn as a laboratory for research and development interests of the IHE
5. The Systematic Corporate Model, which represents a more coherent approach to ISTE and includes a quasi-legal framework, a conceptual framework, a design framework, and a support system.

INSERVICE: AN INTERLOCKING ENTERPRISE

A number of alternative definitions of inservice have been reviewed and a variety of structural formats identified for organizing and providing this activity. It is important in any review of inservice to examine this activity as part of two larger processes. The basic purpose that inservice serves and the degree to which it is actually needed are determined primarily by how teacher education as a whole, and the role of schools in general, are conceptualized. For example, a critical determinant in deciding the scope and type of inservice needed by the beginning teacher is the quality and quantity of preservice training the teacher has received. A second basic factor is the degree to which the role assigned to the teacher is consonant with the teacher's initial preparation.

Inservice might not have taken on the importance it has today if the typical beginning teacher had undergone rigorous screening, completed an extended preservice program, followed this with a transitional internship program, and then been asked to teach in a stable school curriculum, with ample resources and reasonable numbers of students. What, in fact, is the reality?

The teacher education process begins with recruitment or, more specifically, a case can be made that it should. This may seem like a rather remote concern, especially when so many teachers are presently not employable by school districts. Yet the United States report to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development in 1974 reported that 87.6 percent of all teachers are Caucasian and 87 percent of all elementary school teachers are women. If these disproportionate representations in terms of race and sex are not enough cause for some concern, the Study Commission of Undergraduate Education, in its analysis of the Carnegie Study, stated:

. . . in fact, future teachers' answers did not suggest a focused engagement with the real world--which education ostensibly serves--either. Almost 90 percent of the 1970 future teachers considered it "not important" or only "somewhat important" for them to ever influence

the political structure. Approximately 60 percent said it was "not important" or "only somewhat important" to influence social values. Somewhat over 50 percent did consider it important to keep up with political affairs, and more than two-thirds thought it was unimportant to have friends with different backgrounds and interests than their own. In summary, teachers-to-be, from the distance of the data, appear to be like Auden's "unknown citizen," and like many of us, somewhat vague, highminded people who would not go to the wall or understand how to do so for parents and children very different from themselves.¹⁹

The potential problems created by an overly homogeneous teaching force in a highly heterogeneous world underscore one basic need in recruitment and selection. The overall caliber and commitment of teachers selected, regardless of race or sex, presents another problem. The limitations of initial selection procedures and continuing screening of candidates are well known. The National Institute of Education (NIE) recognized the severity of problems in this area and commissioned a panel of experts in 1974 to make recommendations about improving selection criteria and processes. This panel concluded that, "selecting entrants into teacher education or into teaching jobs is now only occasionally a rational process; more often it is nonsystematic or haphazard. . . ." ²⁰ The recommendations made by this distinguished panel to rectify the situation have yet to be implemented in any significant way.

What is the state of the scene with respect to initial preparation? Certainly, improvements have been made in beginning teacher education. The recent competency-based movement in many instances has resulted in organizational and instructional advances. Earlier and more continuing field experiences, improved feedback mechanisms, skill development facilitated through microteaching and simulated experiences, more explicit criteria for desired outcomes and more options for reaching those goals, and more flexible time frames have all contributed to this phase of teacher education.

Nonetheless, much remains to be done, and needed curricular modifications in preservice teacher education tend to be squeezed and shoved into a relatively short and often unrelated set of courses comprising the professional studies component. The AACTE Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching stated the problem succinctly:

To meet its responsibilities to society, the teaching profession requires a significantly enlarged and expanded initial preparation program (as well as more attention to inservice and continuing education) and . . . that the United States Office of Education undertake the funding of teacher education models which require preparation time spans more closely approximating the length of training in other professions, in an endeavor to determine the results that optimal models could achieve.²¹

Specific reforms which might be implemented in preservice teacher education will not be dealt with at this time, since the focus in this monograph is on alternatives in inservice teacher education. *The relationship between pre- and inservice is emphasized here, however. There has been no systematic study of what elements of a teacher education curriculum are best focused on initially, and what might best be deferred to a more formal induction phase in the schools--or even later.*

For example, principles for developing a variety of learning environments in the classroom and studies in various dimensions of growth and development are common "foundations" content in preservice teacher education. Yet one could see these as more fundamental to inservice than preservice teachers, since it is difficult to see how the teacher can internalize complex organizational strategies or transfer principles of growth and development to instructional decisions without more substantive teaching experience than that generally provided in preservice programs. This is not to say that to acquire skill and understanding in these areas will not demand continuing inquiry in both preservice and inservice. Rather, it is suggested that certain areas of study should be reserved as *primarily inservice experiences*, because they simply cannot be met with any genuine understanding prior to that time.

On the other hand, there is much which can be done best in the preservice setting. The last thing needed is a diminished preservice experience in a move toward essentially an apprenticeship model. Such a movement bespeaks a return to medieval practice where "knowing how" preempts the depth of understanding and diversity of action that comes with "knowing why." In addition, "knowing how" is a developmental process where preservice simulation, micro-, and laboratory approaches enable preservice teachers to walk before they are asked to run. The relationship between pre- and inservice is far more complex than simply increasing the amount of classroom experience for the preservice teacher. Just what teacher education experiences are best explored, in which ways, and at what stage are questions those concerned with inservice should seriously consider. Some of the common stock of recent inservice efforts might have been handled more effectively in preservice programs. For example, interpersonal skills, collaborative planning and problem-solving strategies, and more sophisticated approaches to documentation, measurement, and evaluation don't require prerequisite experience and competence in instructing large numbers of students. Yet these are critical enough to justify major study and certainly more attention than commonly allotted in most preservice programs.

In this regard, two basic changes could easily be incorporated into most preservice programs. First, all teachers could have some degree of instructional specialization (as well as current curricular emphasis) built into their programs. Some of the roles suggested earlier by Corrigan and Burdin could be piloted now, in more limited forms, at the preservice level. Various diagnostic specialities, expertise with different technologies, or observation and documentation skills are examples of possible instructional specialization or sophistication. All preservice teachers could meet regularly in ongoing core groups to engage in collaborative planning and curriculum development and begin the process of sharing complementary instructional strengths. In addition, each preservice teacher could easily be scheduled to meet periodically with a group comprised of future or preservice administrators, counselors, and curriculum specialists. This format would provide for practice in problem solving across role groups. The crosscutting issues and persistent problems now covered briefly in most foundations components could serve as the content for these sessions.

In summary, inservice is directly affected by what transpires in preservice. More attention should be given to what components of teacher education are best conducted when and in what developmental sequence. In light of the current emphasis on inservice, it should be underscored that this activity is but one phase, however critical, of what should be a more systemic and interrelated process of teacher education.

THE NEED FOR A PLANNED TRANSITION FROM PRESERVICE TO INSERVICE

Historically, most efforts in both initial preparation and later inservice education of teachers have been based on the generalized needs of practicing professionals. Considerable uniformity in school practice has allowed teacher educators to organize rather standardized instructional offerings for teachers to select from. Limited personnel resources and the logistical difficulties of conducting training in discrete school sites have largely precluded teacher education responses hand-tailored to those needs of individual teachers created by the unique demands of their specific school context.

Certainly, the majority of preservice programs have appeared to operate on the assumption that the prospective teacher can, upon employment, effectively translate a generalized body of knowledge and skills into a variety of school contexts. It is assumed that the fine tuning required for this transition to a specific assignment will come with fuller responsibility and more experience, supplemented by the inservice offerings of that school and/or the larger school district. This assumption is probably valid to the extent that initial training is basically consonant with the demands of the actual teaching assignment and inservice offerings are provided which reflect the unique problems of specific settings.

Two evolving conditions, however, mitigate against this possibility. First, not only do a host of demographic variables suggest considerable differences *between* how schools function in different social settings and geographic locations, but there is also increasing variation, as noted earlier, in life style and value orientation even *within* specific geographic communities. Second, there is little evidence that systematically planned inservice to ease the transition or induction into teaching exists in any comprehensive manner. The prevailing practice is rather to add a few extra days to the orientation week at the outset of the year for the beginning teachers. This "orientation" is devoted primarily to technical/organization concerns, and is usually followed by an additional visit or two from the building principal. Leight, in analyzing problems in terms of CBTE delivery systems, states the problem:

Most of our competency statements blur or ignore the difference between what might be called "entry-level proficiency" (what we will accept for Level I certification) and "mastery-level proficiency" (what we expect of a tenured, Level II teacher). The failure to make this distinction and to assist the teacher to become a master teacher is the most important confusion and shortcoming of teacher education. Teacher educators have brought the candidate to the point where he can enter the classroom with some competence, but the profession pretends that he is an accomplished teacher. Thus he receives the same assignment and treatment as veteran teachers. The result is that the first year of teaching is the greatest scandal in American education. It has allowed teacher educators to be the scapegoats for virtually all of the shortcomings in basic education. It has driven literally thousands of promising and idealistic young people in disgust from the profession. Worse still, it has soured and embittered a large percentage of the incumbents in the profession. And these young men and women are the future--they will be our schools for the next 20, 30, even 40 years. 22

Recent Title VII litigation has been brought to bear against local school boards in connection with the use for licensing and placement of tests which were alleged to be non-job related. The Supreme Court, in *Griggs v. Duke Power Company*, demonstrated the direct relationship to teacher education when it stated,

The facts of this case demonstrate the inadequacy of broad and general testing devices as well as the infirmity of using diplomas or degrees as fixed measures of capability. . . . diplomas and tests are useful servants, but Congress has mandated the commonsense proposition that they are not to become masters of reality.²³

The Study Commission on Undergraduate Education and the Education of Teachers questioned whether current educational practices satisfy guidelines of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission which are consistent with the *Griggs* decision:

1. No predictive or criterion-related validity has been demonstrated (there are almost no adequate measures currently in existence to ascertain whether people who finish a certain approved training program do a superior or even an adequate job of teaching real pupils in real communities).
2. Content validity probably cannot be demonstrated because program approvals are made without prior analyses of the jobs which persons certified upon completion of the program will be entitled to hold or will have to fill.
3. Program approval by one State is frequently relied on by another State for issuance of certificates, even though the job of teaching may vary radically because of the differences in the communities and pupils in the two States.²⁴

Formal transition or induction models would speak directly to this critical problem, and there are some efforts in this direction. As an outgrowth of recommendations in the James Report and the 1972 Government White Paper, a number of pilot schemes for induction have been tried in the United Kingdom. In Northumberland and Liverpool, the basic scheme was to give reduced teaching loads (usually a 75 percent load) to probationers or beginning teachers. Teacher-tutors were then trained and assigned to these beginning teachers. Formal inservice experiences were provided for the probationers in the school as well as at nearby centers. The range of induction plans piloted and the initial evaluations of these programs can be reviewed in more detail in the 1976 OECD publication, *Innovation in Inservice Education and Training of Teachers: United Kingdom*.²⁵

In the United States, the Intern program at Lehigh University is an excellent example of a program designed to assist with this critical transition period. A teaching intern is defined as an individual who meets the following criteria:

1. possession of a baccalaureate degree and success in meeting the criteria for admission to a teacher education program based upon individual's potential as a professional teacher.

2. successful completion of a preservice training program which includes supervised observation and practice with children in a clinical setting.
3. acceptance of a paid internship.
4. responsibility for the learning of a group of students.
5. participation in a regular program of university supervision.²⁶

Note that this is a person who has successfully completed a preservice program. The key to the Lehigh program is extended support and expert supervision provided during the first year of teaching. The continuity of vested interest in the neophyte from the university to the school system distinguishes this model from the British efforts. Primary responsibility for transitional training and support rests with the school district in the United Kingdom model, while in the Lehigh approach the college assumes major responsibility. Various degrees of collaboration between these two systems are obviously possible in transition schemes as well. Gross, in the 1975 Hunt Lecture, advocated a more radical approach, and one this writer strongly endorses:

That is why I have begun to advocate an alternative strategy of training and hiring teachers in teams. A new teacher, or a teacher refreshed with new ideas and expertise, may rapidly lose initiative and confidence when setting out to work all alone. Reassurance, reinforcement, and professional companionship are required to make a new process flourish. I suggest that it would be interesting and useful to produce teams of teachers according to specifications designed cooperatively [emphasis mine] by a college and a school district. These teams would be prepared to function in such a way as to achieve predetermined results. A very tall order indeed, but may I remind you: first, that's what a teacher is supposed to do now; and second, in the reasonably near future whole schools should be organized in just so precise a fashion.²⁷

Obviously, new fiscal and structural relationships would have to be worked out in such collaborative and extended training programs, and the state department of education would likely play a central role in this process. The groundwork, however, has been laid. Collaboratively sponsored precertification internships are hardly new; and forward-looking states such as Washington, where four phases of preparation and three levels of certification were identified as early as 1971, provide models from which transitional programs can build. Guidelines for consortia have also been clearly spelled out in Washington and other states. The problems, while complex, are not insurmountable. A number of alternative induction or transition schemes could and should be piloted with variations planned in the roles of IHEs, LEAs, and the organized professions. If one is to look to the future in terms of alternatives in inservice, alternative induction programs, as well as alternative preservice programs, must be considered.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF INSERVICE TO SCHOOL REFORM

Just as ISTE policy decisions which respond only to perceived inservice needs, without analysis of why they exist or when they might best be met, are short-sighted, so also are long-range ISTE decisions based primarily upon individual needs with little, if any, concern about their collective impact on the quality and direction of school programs. This writer has repeatedly maintained that reform in teacher education cannot occur without concomitant reform in schooling.

As current alternative approaches to ISTE were reviewed, one major concern evolved. At present, a number of signs point to heightened efforts to respond to individual needs and a lessening of ISTE concern more directly related to program reform. In some respects, this shift is understandable, and one can only applaud the fact that teachers are assuming a more pre-eminent role in their own professional development. There is little doubt that more personalized responses to teachers are badly needed. Paradoxically, perhaps, this goal can be achieved only if attention is also given to altering markedly the conditions in which teachers work--which means emphasizing inservice approaches that look not only at how the individual might change, but how the schooling environment must change as well to allow this desired individual growth.

Bush has encouraged teacher education in the next decade to move from a focus on individuals to a focus on *an entire school in a natural community setting*. He identifies the following trends as occurring during the past decade:

From	To
1. Primary or sole emphasis on inschool activities taking place in the school house.	Taking students and education more out into the community - breaking down the barriers between schools and communities - classrooms without walls.
2. Predominant emphasis and reliance upon liberal or general education.	A greater attention to career education - both broadly and specifically considered.
3. The school and community being looked upon as a homogeneity - a melting pot.	The school and community as a diversity, with interesting and valuable different subparts to be preserved, nourished, and appreciated - a cultural pluralism.
4. Teaching as a function of an individual professional, performing all of the work by him/herself in relative isolation.	Teaching as a cooperative (team) function, including both a horizontal and a vertical division of labor (differentiated staff) and encompassing a wider variety of actors from inside as well as outside the school.
5. A school and society that emphasizes courses, credits, and credentials - a credentialling society.	A school and society that relies more upon competence (what you can do, not what you have been through) - a learning society. ²⁸

An organizational scheme which demonstrates desired linkage not only between preservice and inservice teacher education, but between teacher education and program improvement in the schools, is Project OPEN. Sponsored by the University of Minnesota/Minneapolis Public Schools Teacher Center, Project OPEN allowed a number of faculty members of the college to assist the schools in the design and development of a more coherent school alternative; in this case an open school. After a three-year developmental period, this school became the prototype for both preservice and inservice training of teachers. In return for the college's initial investment in the design of this prototype school, the schools collaborated fully in the design of a teacher education curriculum for preservice teachers desirous of teaching in such schools. The preservice design was developed concurrently with the planning of inservice programs for experienced teachers who wished to move toward more open classrooms.

Over the course of an academic year, selected teachers in the Open School, together with college faculty, engaged in continuing task and behavior analyses of their colleagues. On the basis of their experience as well as systematic observations and recordings, these teachers assisted over the next year in the development of curriculum and training materials for both preservice and experienced teachers. Next they were involved in the selection of the students for the preservice phase of the program. At the same time, other experienced inservice teachers in the larger Minneapolis School System were provided internships in the Open School, as well as training in the materials which had been developed. These teacher-interns in turn released the Open School teachers who had originally assisted in the development of the preservice program for actual team teaching with the college faculty in the preservice program. They team-taught the preservice students on campus and, at other times, worked with these same students in their own classrooms.

In summary, this organizational scheme allowed college faculty to assist in the design and development of a coherent school prototype and to provide some of the needed corollary inservice. In turn, selected teachers contributed substantively to the design and implementation of an alternative teacher education program for preservice teachers. A tradeoff of programmatic effort was achieved, and a development link was formed between (a) preservice and inservice and (b) renewal in teacher education and schooling. An expanded but most appropriate role for the scholar in program design and attendant inservice was reciprocated by an expanded, and again most appropriate, role by the practitioner in all phases of preservice education. A conceptual plan which attended to basic relationships, often otherwise ignored in inservice, was translated into a cost-effective operational scheme.

ALTERNATIVE BENEFITS FOR PARTICIPATING IN INSERVICE

Incentives or inducements are commonly provided for teachers to participate in inservice. Typically, these concomitant benefits are provided in the form of released time, credit and degree recognition, and advancement on the salary schedule. This is not to argue against the ultimate reason most teachers participate in continuing education or inservice--that is, to become more effective teachers and in turn enrich learning experiences for their students. While little mention has been made of the child in this discussion of inservice, let there be no doubt that the need for better learning opportunities for children is the ultimate rationale for providing better learning opportunities for teachers. It should also be noted that a considerable degree of voluntarism exists among teachers in inservice activity, especially in the growing teachers' center movement.

Nonetheless, there can be severe constraints to teachers' effective participation in inservice. Lack of time and lack of recognition in the form of monetary reimbursements are very real concerns to many classroom teachers. The provision of adequate time and the acknowledgement of effort in terms of monetary reimbursement, however, cannot by themselves offset other conditions which can be equally constraining to the experienced teacher's continuing development. A continuing commitment to professional growth may hinge more upon how the concepts of consonance, comfort, career development, and basic competence are addressed by inservice planners and organizers.

Alternative Value Perspectives. Teachers must first perceive the approach to inservice as consonant or compatible with their own views of how teaching and learning best occur. Teachers are frequently maligned for what is perceived as an atheoretical approach to schools. Yet the experience of this writer suggests that, given a choice, teachers have deep-rooted convictions about how both their own continuing education and that of their students should be conducted. Rarely have alternative orientations to teacher education been discussed with teachers. Joyce,²⁹ in his penetrating analysis of views of man and the education of teachers, identifies four major reform movements which have had an impact on teacher education in this century: (a) the Progressive Reform movement, (b) the Academic Reform movement, (c) the Personalistic Reform movement, and (d) the competency orientation. These movements have manifested themselves in a number of ways in modern day inservice approaches. The first orientation can be seen in inservice approaches which have group skills and human relations interwoven throughout. The second orientation reflected in inservice practice focuses upon curriculum construction in terms of concept development and methods of cognitive processing such as inquiry and problem solving. The third approach emphasizes personal understanding and suggests that learning evolves in the unique way one interacts with and develops a helping relationship with others. The fourth orientation, perhaps more a methodology than a psycho-philosophical position, is reflected in performance or competency-based schemes which state explicit behavioral criteria, afford alternative experiences for meeting these criteria, and provide continuing monitoring and feedback. This orientation assumes that a substantive portion of teacher competency can be defined in terms of specific behaviors.

While elements of each of these value orientations would likely be found in any comprehensive approach to ISTE, it is not uncommon for many programs, at least those of a more specific duration, to embrace one dominant orientation, which may or may not be one that the individual teacher can comfortably accept. Too often inservice is "laid on" without any discussion of legitimate philosophical differences; and in these cases, the effort to engage teachers meaningfully in inservice is really lost before one begins.

Comfort. Comfort? As stated at the outset, we are engaged in an endeavor fraught with uncertainty. As pressures upon the school continue to increase, the curriculum expands. We now have multicultural education, moral education, career education (of various shades), environmental education. . . . Given this situation, inservice has too often been approached in a linear and additive fashion. Teachers, especially elementary teachers, are perceived as a "bottomless pit" in what they can assume. Increased emphasis by teachers in one area may very well require a lessening or even termination of efforts in another area. The question of just how much any one teacher can effectively assume across curriculum areas or teaching approaches is never asked very loudly. The answer from this quarter--for starters--is: not as much as they are asked to do now in many cases. We might more seriously explore what many individual teachers might better cease doing! The point for inservice is that if the teachers see the object of the activities planned as making their work more extended or difficult, rather than allowing them to perform more effectively and efficiently, then again there is little hope of any genuine involvement.

Career Development. What career development? At least the opportunity rarely exists for teachers to remain in a role working primarily with students and yet move up in some career hierarchy reflecting more status and increased expertise over the years. The very substantial numbers of nonteaching educational personnel in "support" positions identified at the outset of this monograph (assuming a considerable number of these were once classroom teachers themselves) provide ample testimony that teachers very much have career aspirations like most everyone else. Obviously, much of what was labeled as inservice in the past might better have been called "outservice" in terms of the effect it had on removing teachers from the classroom. Inservice would seem to be a much more meaningful activity for many teachers if it were related to the opportunity to assume more sophisticated, responsible, and financially rewarding instructional roles while remaining in the schools. The implications of such a change in terms of career growth are considerable and confront directly the current position of the teacher associations on differentiated staffing. From this perspective, the concept of salary schedules can be substantially differentiated and related to rigorous inservice training requirements. The single salary schedule is a most unfortunate albatross, especially when hung around a profession.

Competence. As often as possible, inservice education should be designed to demonstrate payoff in the classroom. Perhaps the most powerful incentive for pursuing any activity is the sure knowledge it has made one a better person, or in this case, a better teacher. Various types of inservice should

transfer to application in the classroom, and application with feedback built in when possible. There are multiple ways of doing this, and these will be discussed in more detail in the section on job-embedded types of inservice. Again, this recommendation is hardly new, but nonetheless rarely heeded. Inservice must increasingly be cast in this direction of demonstrable classroom improvement if it is to receive any substantive public support.

In summary, teacher pro forma involvement in inservice can be mandated, coerced, and perhaps even bought. Committed and continuing involvement by teachers may depend more upon our ability to address better such bottom-line factors as personal beliefs, reasonable roles, career aspirations, and evidence of actual utility in the classroom.

Before some of the more recent approaches for providing ISTE are reviewed, it is imperative that one other area of research and development be noted in developing a more coherent and conceptual framework for this endeavor. Sprinthall³⁰ has emphasized the need to create effective *educational* rather than *training* programs. The basic distinction he makes is that the former implies more profound changes in behavior and thinking, and the latter suggests attempts at more discrete skill acquisition without attention to fundamental stages of teacher psychological and personal development. This orientation rests on the still controversial assumptions that (a) adult psychological development is possible, and (b) teacher education can affect further development.

This premise needs to be tested more fundamentally in programs of teacher education, but there is mounting evidence to support this direction. First, numerous studies have suggested the effects of many skill training programs wash out or do not generalize or transfer to practice (Shavelson and Dempsey, 1975).³¹ Second, such scholars as O. J. Harvey, David E. Hunt, Harold M. Schroeder, Matthew Miles, and Kevin Ryan have tentatively demonstrated that teachers reflect relatively low levels of conceptual, personal, and psychological development.

Sprinthall has attempted to assess various dimensions of intellectual, personal, and moral development in teachers. On the basis of these understandings, programs have been developed to provide a foundational inservice teacher education base which more fundamentally matches individual teachers' needs and moves them from where they are to levels of more complex conceptual functioning. Initial studies have found that teachers assessed as capable of more abstract and complex reasoning are characterized by teaching approaches which result in more divergent, searching, and reflective patterns of behavior in their students. Teacher educators might do well to expand the limited concepts of teacher "needs" assessment popular today and consider more seriously those developmental patterns which provide insights into the fundamental accommodative capacity of teachers.

In a parallel type of research, a better understanding of basic adult life stages is evolving. The initial efforts of scholars such as Roger Gould demonstrate that adults pass through fairly predictable patterns of change. Some of the generalizations he recently shared to illustrate these patterns may have a familiar ring in your own situation or others you know:

The late twenties are an interesting and active time. Marriage absorbs and reflects many of the stresses and strains . . . between the ages of 28 and 32, while there is decreasing agreement that "For me, marriage has been a good thing." . . .

There is a clear focus on the family in the thirties. An active social life seems less important, while feelings about one's mate and offspring increase in significance. . . .

In the early thirties, there is suddenly a feeling that "I don't make enough money to do what I want." . . .

Later in the forties both friends and loved ones become increasingly important. . . . Money, so bothersome because of its insufficiency in the early thirties, becomes less important, and there is an accompanying feeling that it is "too late to make any major changes in my career." . . .

Stability fraught with concern marks the fifties, and the concern is largely about time. . . .³²

Research on personality development in different stages of life is still in its infancy. The extent to which variant perspectives and behavior are associated with different life stages, however, would appear to have considerable implications for what type of inservice activities are planned for teachers of different ages. It could reasonably be assumed that, as personal orientations change over time, these interact with perceptions of role, and with the extent to which individuals perceive they should or can change as well. Ralph³³ is one of those who have begun to examine personality development specifically in the context of role changes. In a small pilot study, he interviewed faculty members at one university to see how they perceived their role. Such topics as how they viewed the nature of knowledge, their philosophy of teaching, their attitudes toward students and colleagues, and their concept of their own role as professors were discussed. On the basis of an analysis of these tentative data, he was able to order faculty along a continuum, and summarizes:

The continuum portrays a progression from a position where faculty see knowledge as an unambiguous entity, and where teaching consists of simply presenting facts to students, to a position where they begin to see knowledge in more differentiated terms and recognize the need to use various strategies to help students gain understanding. . . . The concept of professional role evolves from simple definitions of right and wrong actions, to an awareness of choice in roles and a sense of possible restrictions and limitations, and finally to a sense of style and tolerance within their choice of roles. In relations with others the progression goes from a view of people in moralistic terms of good and bad, to a more psychologically insightful notion of people that recognizes the origins of manipulation and inequality in human relations, and to a sense of commitment in a context of tolerance and reciprocity.³⁴

Ralph also suggests that this developmental pattern begins at different times, proceeds at different rates, and culminates at different stages for different individuals. If his initial hypothesis about such a pattern is valid, then again how one approaches individual teachers, or in this case teacher educators, in terms of their continuing development would differ considerably.

In summary, when one considers alternatives in inservice teacher education, the preceding theoretical groundwork should be taken into account. One might focus upon various elements of general personality development, aging, and the interaction of these with role development. The conceptual challenge posed earlier by Edelfelt should include building upon (a) alternative concepts of schooling and teaching, (b) alternative purposes of ISTE, (c) alternative delivery systems, (d) alternative value orientations, and

(e) rooting these in a more fundamental understanding of the person. We are irresponsible as educators if we do not put up front those significant inroads we have made, and use these as a rational wedge to demand the additional support it will take to move forward in a more data dependent and conceptually sound direction.

SOME CURRENT TRENDS

The primary purpose of this monograph has been to review a number of conditions and initial conceptual efforts seen as critical to a more complete understanding of the complex process referred to as inservice teacher education. It will not address the rich and diverse number of specific inservice projects and programs which have recently been spawned. It is beyond the scope of this treatise to describe these efforts in any detail--even the limited number of which this writer is aware. Rather, three basic inservice trends will be noted: (a) those efforts to integrate inservice more fundamentally in the teacher's ongoing daily activity, (b) those efforts aimed at giving the teacher more power, autonomy, and decision-making latitude as reflected in the Teachers' Centers movement, and (c) the evolution of structures representing a more collaborative and programmatic approach to ISTE.

JOB-EMBEDDED APPROACHES

The first of these trends this writer has labeled as job-embedded inservice activities. Job-embedded activities are defined as "those planned activities which can be reasonably incorporated within one's normal instructional load to further professional development."³⁵ Included in this form of inservice are at least three basic types of activities: (a) those which involve systematic observation of or feedback about elements of one's ongoing activities in school and school-related activity, (b) focused experimentation with curriculum or instructional behavior, and (c) efforts at gaining more understanding of the student and/or the home and community environment in which that student resides.

Observation and Feedback. Opportunities for more comprehensive and accurate information about what one is actually doing as a teacher are considerable. Traditional supervisory models are well known, and techniques have been developed to make this a more helpful and humane process than has often been the case in the past. Our knowledge base, in terms of who can best provide what type of feedback, when, how often, in what quantities, and in what way, continues to expand. A variety of clinical supervision schemes which interrelate pre-observation conferences, systematic observation, analysis techniques, and a critique of the supervisory process itself have been implemented in a number of schools. Guidelines for the delicate process of peer observation also exist. Several school districts have developed strategies and tools to facilitate a more continuing form of professional exchange between teachers. The *Professional Competence Peer Opinionnaire*, designed by Ball and Geston,³⁶ is just one of several products resulting from recent effort in this direction.

In addition, a number of techniques for behavioral self-observation have also been refined. Thoreson, Mahoney,³⁷ and Foster³⁸ have developed

materials which allow teachers to understand better and alter systematically their own behavior, and to do this in unobtrusive ways while working with students in the classroom. Their initial results in helping teachers to alleviate tension or discomfort in anxiety-producing situations which tend to reoccur in the classroom have been very promising. The various ways in which technological tools can be used to provide feedback to teachers are well documented. The capability exists in systems such as the computer-assisted teacher training system (CATTS)³⁹ to provide unobtrusive, immediate feedback to teachers on a number of desired dimensions of their instructional behavior. Teachers can immediately analyze, for example, what type of verbal or nonverbal behavior they have been using. This feedback can be channeled through means of either closed-circuit televised images of a cathode-ray tube display (CRT) or an audio tape recorder triggered by the computer to provide desired information. Training materials developed at the Texas Center for Research and Development in Teacher Education⁴⁰ help those who engage in observation and feedback to understand and attend to the socioemotional concerns of the teacher, as well as the technical-cognitive elements of instruction. Training materials to assist counselors in teaming with teachers in this process have also been developed.

One of the potentially productive sources of focused feedback as a means of teacher inservice is to incorporate the teacher's students into this process more formally. This writer has piloted the use of observation tools which are simplified and descriptive in nature, and appropriate for use by students from the intermediate grades on up. The teacher and students can select different elements of classroom activity which they would like to study more closely. Guidelines are provided to help students first analyze and then discuss the information collected. Group process, various dimensions of classroom communication, decision-making styles, time on task, and traffic patterns are elements of classroom activity recorded periodically. This approach is based on the premise that when students are asked to think about what can make the teacher more effective, they also reflect upon their own role and responsibility in the transactional process of teaching and learning. The potential of accurate feedback provided in a continuing way in the natural scheme of things should not be underestimated as a powerful dimension of inservice.

Curricular and Instructional Variations. The second type of job-embedded inservice activities, focused experimentation with curriculum, specific teaching, or instructional approaches, has also been facilitated in a number of ways. In 1974, the Stanford Center for Research and Development catalogued and classified over 750 teacher training products.⁴¹ These products were classified into four basic skill areas: planning skills, presentation skills, skills in the unplanned aspects of teacher behavior, and assessment and evaluation of skills. Many of these materials are designed for individual or small group use and applicable to a job-embedded, school-based format. They run the gamut of curricular content and specific teaching skills.

The growing network of Individually Guided Education (IGE) Schools, where the emphasis is on team teaching, and the many Teacher Corps sponsored projects which emphasize the team leader's role in inservice, have contributed substantively to more collegial approaches to altering curriculum and instruction. Yet other self-improvement designs involve a reciprocal type of negotiations between teacher and supervisor. The teacher identifies specific

goals toward which to work and negotiates these with the supervisor. The plan for accomplishing these is jointly developed, and the supervisor is held accountable for the materials, resources, and support needed for the teacher to implement the plan.

Child-Oriented Variations. The third common type of job-embedded inservice activities is distinguished by its focus on gaining more insights into the students and, at times, their environment outside of the school. Perhaps the most influential inservice teacher education program in the history of our schools has been the Child Study Movement, which was the progenitor for many ISTE activities today. For well over thirty years, Child Study Programs were operated throughout the United States. Brandt,⁴² one of the leaders of this movement, has estimated that more than 70,000 teachers and administrators participated in at least a year of child study training.

This approach, familiar to most experienced classroom teachers, consisted of (a) planning and engaging in a direct, continuing, and systematic study of a child; (b) developing an ongoing and objective case record of that child; and (c) meeting in a group made up of six to fifteen colleagues biweekly throughout the year to analyze and summarize these case records jointly. Consultants from the sponsoring university visited each group three times a year and a local coordinator was trained to provide interim assistance, if and when needed. Teachers could remain in the group one to three years, with an increasing sophistication in observation, analysis, and interpretation skills planned for each successive year.

Over the years considerable data was collected on this inservice approach. Significant gains were noted not only in terms of teachers' knowledge of child behavior and their ability to record and interpret that behavior, but in terms of desired attitudes and teaching patterns as well. Participation in the program also produced effects extending beyond the walls of the school. Brandt summarizes:

Several effects were found in *school and community patterns*. Participating teachers made more home visits than non-participants. Human relationships within schools and between schools and communities seemed to improve considerably. When school systems had a high percentage of teachers involved in child study, the numbers were relatively low of children not promoted to the next grade, suspended from school, or sent to the principal's office. In addition, parent education programs became more significant. . . .⁴³

While the Child Study Movement as developed at the University of Maryland no longer exists as such on any large scale today, the interest in child study continues to exist in diffuse programs throughout the United States. The child developmentalist position growing out of the work of Piaget is central to the activity reflected in many Teachers' Centers which evolved in the 1970's. The well known Glasser approach to "Classroom Meetings" is but one of several recent major commercial efforts into the inservice teacher education field which have had a child-centered focus. The wave of open schools in the late sixties and early seventies generally embraced curricular orientation emphasizing this concern. The Nuffield Foundation's Primary Mathematics Project, designed in the mid-sixties in Great Britain, contributed to renewed

efforts in this country in the past decade (or about the time the traditional child study movement ran its course) to relate dimensions of child growth and development to curriculum design.

The extension into the community has operated on a more broken front. Many of the open schools reflect substantial community and parental involvement in the operation and governance of their programs. In turn, teachers have committed more of their energies to an understanding of the child in the context of the home and community. Joint teacher/parent inservice programs are typical in many of these school settings. In addition, Teacher Corps and the Urban/Rural School Development Program, two major federal programs with an emphasis on inservice teacher education, vigorously promote types of continuing education which provide teachers with better insights and enriched understandings of the school community. These programs also intensify formal participation by the community in the schools. Mesa,⁴⁴ in assessing the impact to date of the Urban/Rural program, reports that of the more than 300 teachers surveyed in this program, 60 percent of these teachers now solicit input from Urban/Rural staff and community in planning.

At least two nonprofit organizations also promote further citizen involvement in education and, in some ways, inservice. Both the National Committee for Citizens in Education (NCCE), based in Columbia, Maryland, and the Institute for Responsive Education (IRE), located in Boston, have national visibility. These efforts suggest that certain inservice activities will be increasingly decided and embedded at the school level and will at times involve teachers in working more formally with the local community than has been the case in the past.

In summary, multiple opportunities exist to embed many forms of inservice in the ongoing daily activities of the teacher. While inservice is often thought of in terms of more formal and traditional modes, such as courses and workshops, approaches to ISTE are in fact much more diversified. It seems likely that this job-embedded orientation to inservice will continue to grow. In a time of shrinking monies it offers a variety of rather economical alternatives. It can speak directly to the on-line needs of teachers and is more likely to reflect the perceived priorities of the local community as well. It can provide a direct link between individual teacher needs and more generalized program renewal in the school. Finally, it can also focus on the bottom-line objective of inservice--increased effectiveness, however defined, for teachers and students.

TEACHERS' CENTERS

A second major trend in inservice is the teachers' center. The movement toward this approach to inservice has been observed in several other countries in addition to the United States. Political, social, and economic forces, as well as educational concerns, have given impetus to the growth of these centers. Many teachers have embraced this approach for primarily political reasons in order to demonstrate their professional autonomy and the pre-eminence of their decisions about their own continuing development. Others have been attracted to such centers because they have provided for a very real social need. Opportunity to interact with colleagues in a relaxed and casual atmosphere is a rare treat. Neither the school setting itself--with the exception of the frenetic coffee break--nor most other conventional approaches to ISTE allow for any real degree of socializing among teachers. Finally, many teachers today possess all the advanced degrees they need, and for them participation at a local center is appealing because it is more economical in both time and monies than tuition-required alternatives.

While each of these three factors contributes considerably to the popularity of these centers, this writer suspects that one other factor bears directly on their appeal for most teachers: the opportunity to come into touch with people they perceive as understanding their own work. Devaney states the case well:

Support is not just handy, useful, available things, it is approachable, practical, credible-to-teachers people; and an atmosphere of informality, acceptance, and immediate helpfulness.⁴⁵

Devaney also provides a set of characteristics which define teachers' centers:

1. They offer teachers fresh curriculum materials and/or lesson ideas, emphasizing active, exploratory, frequently individualized classroom work, not textbook and workbook study.
2. These programs engage teachers in making their own curriculum materials, building classroom apparatus, or involve them in some entirely new learning pursuit of their own so as to reacquaint them with the experience of being active, exploratory learners themselves.
3. Teachers' center instructors are themselves classroom teachers, sharing their own practical, classroom-developed materials; or they are advisors--formerly classroom teachers--who view their job as stimulating, supporting, and extending a teacher in her own directions of growth, not implementing a new instructional model or strategy.
4. Attendance at teachers' center classes is voluntary, not prescribed by the school district; or if indirectly required . . . programs offered are based on teachers' expressions of their own training needs, and several choices are offered.⁴⁶

As can be seen from this description, the teachers' center is more an approach to inservice than any type of physical structure. Centers can be found located within school buildings, in former residential structures, abandoned warehouses, storefronts, or portable units . . . whatever. They respond to a variety of needs and deal with a range of school-related topics. As stated earlier, however, a strong personalistic and developmentalist strain runs throughout many of these operations. A basic tenet which is commonly embraced is that the greatest resource of any learner--whether a teacher in inservice education or a child in the classroom--is that person's own background, interests, and strengths.

The future for this type of center is somewhat unclear. Growing numbers of vacant classrooms in schools suggest accessible space for such endeavors would be no problem in the immediate future. It is also possible that some of the existing school personnel currently perceived as dysfunctional in centralized support systems could be reoriented and relocated to provide some of the needed staffing. Certainly, these centers provide an invaluable service as a clearinghouse for the wealth of good materials, both commercial and teacher-made, which are not well disseminated.

There appear to be a number of factors which might impede their development as well. A good bit of teacher voluntarism runs throughout many of these centers. Whether this will continue over time is questionable, especially if it runs counter to the collective stance of teacher organizations. That

teachers will be able to maintain enough autonomy to be true to the concept of a teachers' center in financially tight times is not certain. If school districts will have to provide most of the support, one would assume that they would increasingly want a greater voice in governance. Finally, the degree to which these efforts can sustain quality services over time and not stagnate as a collective pool of "shared teaching experiences" may be the most critical determinant of their survival and success. The stance of the teacher organizations toward these types of centers will also be crucial in shaping their direction. Regardless of the future terminology employed or the actual numbers of specific efforts called "centers," it is evident that they have for the time being maintained, and in fact amplified, a major psycho-philosophical orientation of how teaching and learning best occur. This writer has little doubt that the ideology will continue to be reflected in one major form or another in the future.

PARTNERSHIP AND CONSORTIA

A third expanding approach to inservice also commonly incorporates the "center" label. The development of structures which represent some form of partnership or consortium, while not new, is growing with respect to the emphasis on inservice. Probably the most common type of cooperative approach is a college and a school system working together, but a variety of other arrangements are also familiar. The cooperation of several school districts or several colleges within the same geographic area represents one pattern; one large school district with several colleges, or vice versa, another; and schools and colleges working with related public service institutions yet another. Basic distinctions exist between these efforts and the teachers' center. These latter operations are collaborative efforts which take on a more programmatic focus as well as, or as opposed to, an individual response function. Linkages between preservice and inservice education are also more common, and the governance process represents a broad-based constituency.

The Yarger typology outlined earlier provided a brief but inclusive overview of the range of structural and organizational variations which exist in these structures. Therefore, only two specific models will be reviewed here briefly to highlight types of collaboration. A Teacher (not Teachers') Center was formally established in a contractual relationship between the Minneapolis School District and the College of Education, University of Minnesota, in 1973. This center was designed to serve three major purposes. First, it provides a multifaceted delivery system for a variety of preservice and inservice programs. The Center initiates many of these teacher education activities by assuming a "linking" or "brokerage" role between the two systems and facilitating appropriate tradeoffs of personnel and resources. Project Open, described earlier, is a good example of this reciprocal developmental assistance. Second, the Center provides a resource facility for both school and college personnel, as well as for people from the Southeast Community of Minneapolis, where the Center is located. Third, the Center serves as a model in organizational governance and differentiated staffing. It is this latter notion which perhaps best illustrates the potential of collaborative effort.

The governance structure of this Center is differentiated to reflect institutional, programmatic, and individual needs. At one level there is an Administrative Committee comprised of two Deputy Superintendents in the Minneapolis District and two Associate Deans in the College. While this committee is empowered with final review of major program and policy decisions, it in fact functions primarily as an advisory body to the Director and the

Center Board, which will be described shortly. The committee meets on a regular basis and ensures that influential persons in both systems are in touch with the other system's needs and interests. It allows an ongoing dialogue to ascertain what type of joint working relationships are feasible and productive and which ones are not. The unique perspectives of the people in these positions also ensure that problems and issues cutting across individual schools and collegiate programs are considered in the Center's agenda.

A Teacher Center Board engages in another type of decision making. This board is comprised of eight persons: four are appointed by the Dean of the College, and four by the Superintendent of Schools. Current membership of the board consists of two professors, two departmental chairpersons, two teachers, one principal, and one community member. This board has specific policy and program responsibilities; for example, it selects the Director and other Teacher Center staff. Its major responsibility, however, is to solicit and review proposals designed to improve teacher education or school curricula. It funds projects (from a joint budget) only if they are cooperatively developed and submitted by persons from both systems. These monies provide a powerful incentive for the involvement of school personnel in preservice projects and college personnel in efforts at school renewal and inservice teacher education.

Finally, there is an Inservice Committee, which is comprised primarily of teachers but which also includes representatives from the college and community. This third decision-making body responds to individual and small group requests for self-improvement monies or resources; it is chaired by a teacher on leave.

This differentiated governance structure then accommodates several functions within the same organizational structure. It assumes both an advocacy function, in establishing priority directions for program developments set and reviewed by the Center Board, and a response function, in the Inservice Committee's relationship to individual teachers and faculty members. It allows for a balance, and interrelationship when appropriate, between individually oriented and institutionally focused inservice. Finally, this governance structure also facilitates an appropriate linkage between preservice and inservice teacher education.

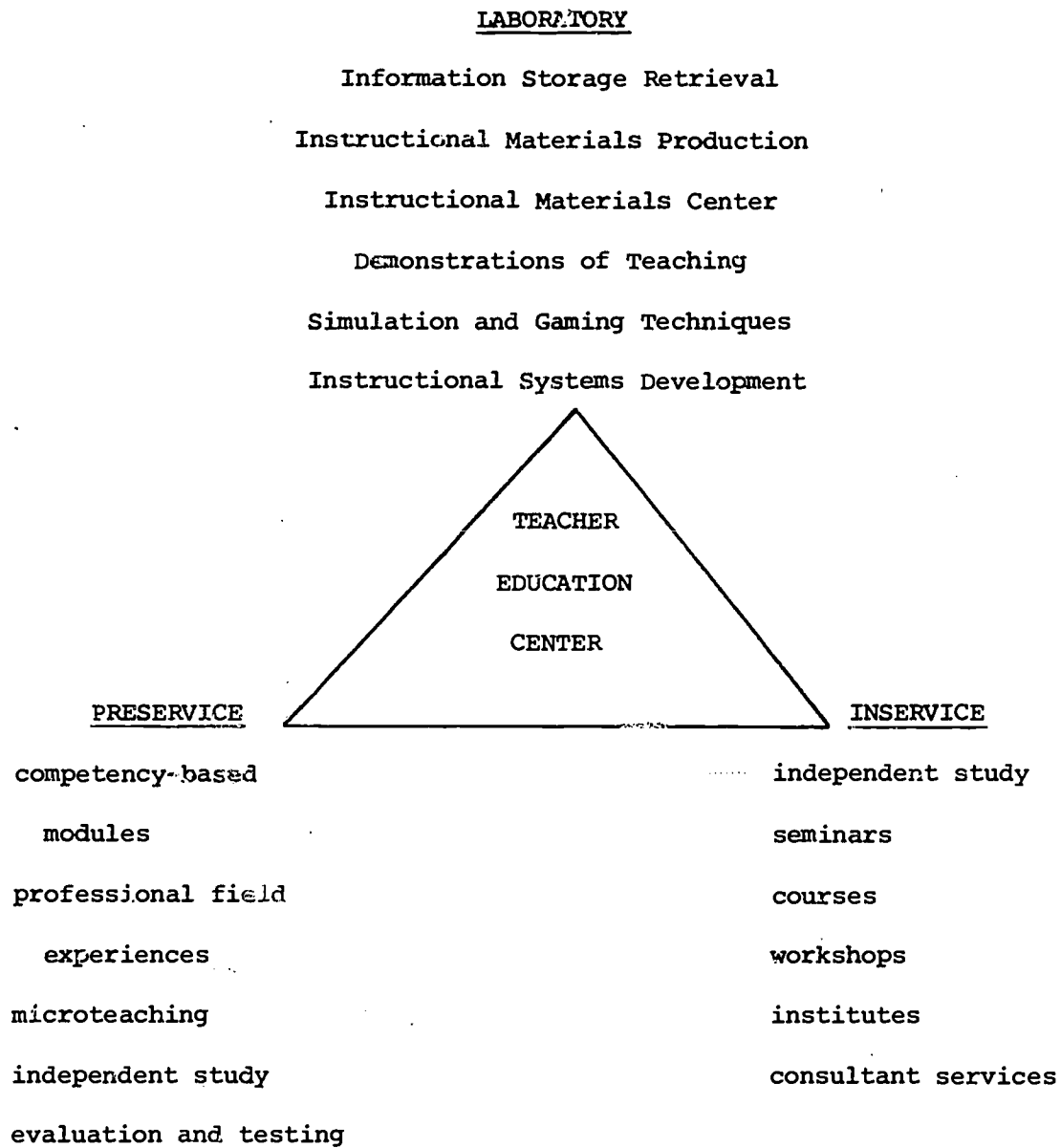
The second collaborative structure to be noted briefly is the Toledo Model.⁴⁷ This teacher education model also stresses the interrelationship of preservice and inservice and emphasizes the need for more cooperative approaches to educational change and innovation. The Center incorporates elements of the IGE approach and is intended as a vehicle for teachers to resolve the daily problems associated with instructional teaming. It not only has a strong information services component--especially in terms of education innovations--but provides consultation in this area as well. The Center is represented schematically in Figure 3.

Very real obstacles must be overcome if effective partnership (let alone multi-institutional consortia) is to be achieved. No less an authority on organizational development than Miles shared his skepticism on the ability of different institutions to collaborate effectively when he stated:

. . . Since most institutions are already multi-functional, use of the (inter-institution) linkage model tends to produce a giantized version, a linked system in which each partner institution tends to retain all its old functions and to compete with other partner institutions for scarce resources. The likelihood of close focus on a particular goal (in the teacher centre case, the development of teacher confidence and competence) tends to be obscured, blocked, or watered down amid a maze of competing goals.⁴⁸

FIGURE 3

A MODEL FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION CENTER



Nonetheless, this writer has observed, in numerous settings, several advantages of partnership which can accrue when both parties work at the process. These were recently summarized as:

1. the identification of appropriate and realistic ways in which college(s) of education might assist a school system(s) with needs assessment (program priorities) and role analyses (teacher effectiveness in these programs); both of these activities are essential to more accurately determine training needs, both preservice and inservice;
2. the identification of appropriate and realistic ways in which a school system(s) and its personnel might provide input into preservice training models in the college(s);
3. assistance to both the school system and the college in relating initial training to continuing training;
4. the identification of appropriate and realistic ways in which a college of education might contribute to the transitional and continuing phases of teacher renewal in the school system(s);
5. assistance in systematically reviewing the combined training resources of both the college(s) and the system(s) to identify possible complementary, shared, and pooled personnel resources. Joint appointments, rotating assignments, and shared facilities can be achieved through the teacher center concept;
6. determination of existing personnel from both personnel resources who might be assigned periodically for external auditing or summative evaluation of one another's programs, possibly on a tradeoff basis;
7. assistance in the coordinated placement of personnel resources from various college and school training programs such as psychology, administration, curriculum and teaching into specific school settings in order to explore concentrated, "critical mass," approaches to program and staff renewal;
8. the generation of monies quite possibly not available to either system independent of the other;
9. the development of short-term critical problem-solving task forces made up of personnel from both systems to intensively respond to crises; personnel could be placed on a rotating on-call basis so that a small "blue-ribbon" group could devote three to ten solid days to a major problem if needed.⁴⁹

SUMMARY

The intent of this monograph was to provide a perspective of inservice in terms of its fundamental relationships to a number of other critical variables--conditions too often ignored in planning "alternative models" of inservice. Such conditions include the changing nature of society and schools, the nature of the teacher education experience prior to inservice, and the changing nature of the human personality itself over time. The position taken is that inservice teacher education will reflect more coherent alternative models when these interrelationships are more fully understood and taken into account in planning inservice programs. In addition, it was suggested that viable alternative approaches to ISTE will be seen more clearly when such fundamental questions as "What are the different purposes which inservice serves?" and "What are the fundamental conditions needed for a commitment to continuing development?" are addressed more completely.

Finally, major trends were noted to provide some idea of the kaleidoscope of inservice approaches possible, since it was beyond the scope of this monograph to review the many specific innovative inservice projects in operation. Contrary to what some would argue, we are not lacking either in ideas or, in many respects, resources. What is needed, it seems for many of us, is a fuller understanding of the richness and variety possible in inservice and a framework which can better bring these resources and ideas together. It is time we extend the concept of alternatives from that of a relatively unique practice--as it is generally perceived in the education world--to that of a planned number of more coherent approaches. It is to be hoped that this overview has called attention to some of the elements to consider in this latter approach and has in some small way assisted in moving toward its realization.

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